ACCOUNT OF THE BRITISH SETTLEMENT

OF

ADEN IN ARABIA.

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AN ACCOUNT

OF

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OF

ADEN IN ARABIA.

BENGAL SECRETARIAT LIBRARY

COMPILED BY

CAPTAIN F. M. HUNTER

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'Haran, and Canneh, and Eden, the merchants of Sheba, Asshur, and Chilmad, were thy merchants.'—EZEKIEL XXVII. 23.

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PREFACE.

THE following monograph has been prepared at the request of Dr. W. W. Hunter, Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India, and so far as the local circumstances of Aden permitted, upon the general plan drawn up by him for all India.

Since the publication of the *History of Yemen* by Captain Playfair in 1859, no account of the Settlement of Aden, beyond the yearly Administration Reports, has been written, and it is hoped that this compilation will be found useful if not interesting.

Several subjects have been treated very cursorily owing to the absence of reliable data, but this very incompleteness will serve a purpose, if thereby the investigation be induced of matters which have been briefly or imperfectly noticed.

Several officers and gentlemen have afforded assistance in collecting materials, and it is desired here to fully recognise the obligation due to them for their valuable co-operation.

The compilation has been prepared in the intervals of current duties, and it is entirely due to the consideration shown the compiler by Brigadier-General Schneider, the Political Resident, that any measure of success has been attained.

The work has been divided into six parts, and it may not be amiss to say a few words regarding each.

PART I. has been compiled from the Records of the Aden Residency and other independent sources.

PART II. is almost entirely the result of personal experience, observation, and inquiry.

The materials for PART III. were obtained by a variety of inquiries, and a free use of all available authorities.

PART IV. it is hardly necessary to notice.

PART V. has been compiled from the Aden Residency Records and Playfair's *History of Yemen.*

PART VI. is an attempt to introduce some items of information that seem worthy of record, but cannot appropriately be included in any of the other parts.

The Map of the Peninsula has been corrected up to date. The Sketch Map showing the Kafilah routes has no pretensions to geographical accuracy, and is only intended to give a general idea of the relative positions occupied by the neighbouring tribes whose territories are not included in the map prepared under the superintendence of Major Stevens.

A list of the authorities consulted will be found in the Appendix, and if any plagiarism has been committed without acknowledgment, it must be set down to inadvertence.

F. M. H.

1877.

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AN ACCOUNT

OF THE

BRITISH SETTLEMENT OF ADEN.

PART I.—GEOGRAPHY AND GENERAL ASPECTS

POSITION, LIMITS, AREA, AND POPULATION.—Aden is a peninsula situated on the south coast of the Province of Yemen in Arabia Felix, and is located in latitude 12° 47′ north, longitude 45° 10′ east.

The British territory includes the peninsula, and extends to a creek named Khor Maksar, about two miles to the northward of the defensive works across the Isthmus.

The adjoining peninsula of Jebel Ihsan, generally called Little Aden, is within British limits, as is also the harbour. The area of the land may be approximately stated at about thirty-five square miles. The population—exclusive of the garrison—was 19,289 in 1872.

The inhabited peninsula is about fifteen miles in circumference, of an irregular oval form, five miles in its greater and three in its lesser diameter; it is connected with the continent by a narrow neck of land 1350 yards in breadth, but which is in one place nearly covered by the sea at high spring-tides, in fact would be, were it not for a causeway constructed for the convenience of the land traffic, and the passage of the Shaikh O'thman Aqueduct.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Aden is a large crater formed of lofty precipitous hills, the highest peak of which has an altitude of 1775 feet; these, on the exterior sides, slope towards the sea, throwing out numerous spurs, which form a series of valleys, radiating from a common centre. A gap exists opposite the fortified island of

Seerah, the position of which would induce the belief that the circle was at one time complete, but that some convulsion of nature produced the gap.

HARBOUR.—Bunder[1] Tawayyi or Aden West Bay, more generally known as Aden Back Bay, is formed by the peninsula of Jebel Ishsan on the west and Jebel Shum Shum on the east. It is about eight miles broad from east to west, by four miles deep; and is divided into two bays by a spit, which runs off half a mile to the southward of the small island of Aliyah: the entrance between Ras Salîl on the west and Ras Tarshyne on the east is three and a third miles in width. The depths of water in the Western Bay are from three to four fathoms, decreasing gradually towards the shore; across the entrance the depths are four and a half to five fathoms, and at a distance of two miles outside ten to twelve fathoms; bottom, sand and mud, both inside and outside the bay.

There are several islands in the inner bay; the eastern and principal, named Jazirah Sawayih,[2] is 300 feet high, and almost joined to the mainland at low-water springs; the others are named Marzuk Kabîr, Kais-al-Hamman, Kalfatain, and Faringi; on the sand-spit, at the north side of the entrance into the inner bay, are two small islets named Jamah Aliyah; opposite Ordnance Bay, about two cables distant from the shore, is the island Shaikh Ahmad or Flint Rock, with a channel of two fathoms.

GEOLOGICAL NOTES.[3]—The varieties of rock met with in both peninsulas are very numerous; there are perfectly compact lavas of brown, grey, and dark green tints, sometimes containing crystals of Anjite, and not unfrequently those of Sanidin, and there are rocks exhibiting every degree of vesicularity until we arrive at lavas resembling a coarse sponge, and passing into scoriæ. The vesicles are in some specimens globular, and in others flat and drawn out. In some places the lava is quite schistose, and might be easily taken for metamorphic rock. Volcanic breccias are also met with, as near the Main-pass, where fragments of dark green lava are imbedded in a reddish matrix. Tufas are also present, but apparently to a limited extent.

Pumice[4] is found in many places, and is exported in considerable

[1] See *Gulf of Aden Pilot.*

[2] Generally called Slave Island.

[3] Abridged from the *Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India*, volume vii. part iii.

[4] In 1876 nearly 4000 tons were sent to Bombay by the contractor of the

quantities to Bombay. Obsidian is to be met with occasionally in the seams. Secondary and accidental minerals are not numerous; Chalcedony is common, lining cavities in the rocks; and thin seams of Epidote occur, as also of Gypsum.

CLIMATE.—The climate during the north-east monsoon, or from October to April, is cool, and in the months of November, December, and January, pleasant and agreeable. During the remainder of the year hot sandy winds, known as 'Shamal' or north, indicating the direction from which they come, prevail within the crater; but on the western, or Steamer Point side, the breezes coming directly off the sea are fairly cool, and that locality is accordingly much preferred by European residents.

The months of May and September are especially disagreeable, those being the periods of the change of monsoons, when the wind almost entirely ceases, and the air is close and oppressive, more particularly during the earlier part of the night; towards morning a cool and refreshing land breeze generally springs up. Aden is not usually considered by medical men to be an unhealthy station, but it is a well-ascertained fact that long residence impairs the faculties and undermines the constitution of Europeans, and even natives of India suffer from the effects of too prolonged an abode in the Settlement. The prevalent diseases are malarious fever, generally contracted elsewhere, scurvy, dysentery, ulcers (supposed by some to be of a specific character), phthisis, and rheumatism. Experience has shown that in the case of Europeans, recovery from any disease, wound, or fracture, is very tedious, and it is advisable that patients should be removed to a more genial climate as soon as any signs of sinking or depression appear. It is only within the last three years that any attempt has been made to obtain an accurate register of the births and deaths that take place in the Settlement, and the result for the year 1875-76 is given in the accompanying Table:—

Prince's Dock' at that port. A fee of one rupee per ton is levied on all pumice exported, and the proceeds are credited to the municipal fund.

The chemical analyser in his report to Government for the year 1872-73 remarks,—'With reference to the Aden pumice, it was found that this differed from ordinary pumice in containing gypsum or hydrated sulphate of lime. In the specimens examined the quantity of this constituent was found to be 18·68 per cent. Aden pumice has for some time been used in the Bombay Reclamation Works as a constituent of the cement employed in making concrete blocks, and in hydraulic work generally, and has been found to give admirable results.'

Deaths.							Births.		
Small-pox.	Fever.	Bowel Complaint.	Accident or violent.	All other causes.	Total.	Percentage.	Males.	Females.	Total.
70	234	164	22	375	865	38·06 per 1000	237	117	354

Register of Deaths showing Races.

Europeans.	Eurasians.	Christians (Native).	Hindoos of Caste.	Hindoos, Low Caste.	Jain.	Mahomedans.	Parsis.	All others.	Total.
29	.	2	20	16	51	745	2	3	868

Note.—The deaths that take place in Aden are very greatly increased from the following abnormal causes:—Persons suffering from disease are brought in from the interior to be cured; others are landed during the pilgrim season with small-pox; if a European dies at sea in the vicinity he is brought into Aden to be buried; Somali mothers take no trouble with their children, and many die in infancy. It must be noticed, however, that the mortality in the case of Europeans, although much increased by the deaths amongst the passengers and crews of vessels, amounts to 23·2 per 1000 only. The total number of Europeans in the settlement, inclusive of military and followers, is upwards of 1300.

Too much reliance should not be placed on the thermometrical readings given in the subjoined statements, as there is no meteorological station,[1] and no one is intrusted with the particular duty of superintending the registration of meteorological phenomena. The average temperature during the year at the three military positions, based on the recorded observations of three years, is as follows:—

[1] During the year 1849 a meteorological observer was stationed at Aden, and the records of his labours were compiled under the auspices of the Bombay Geographical Society (Proceedings of Bombay Geographical Society, May 1850). It would be interesting, were it hereafter possible to obtain any reliable observations, to compare the results, in order to ascertain if there be any truth in the assertion made by 'the oldest inhabitant' that the climate of Aden has much altered, especially of late years; this has been attributed, and apparently without sufficient grounds, to the construction of the Suez Canal.

Camp.

Months.	1873-74.			1874-75.			1875-76.		
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.
April, .	88	82	85	92	81	86·5	86	77	81·5
May, .	91	86	88·5	97	86	91·5	90	80	85
June, .	95	90	92·5	102	89	95·5	94	84	89
July, .	97	90	93·5	100	80	90	96	86	91
August, .	96	90	93	95	75	85	94	84	89
September,	93	88	90·5	95	84	89·5	91	81	86
October, .	89	84	86·5	92	73	82·5	87	78	82·5
November,	85	84	84·5	85	70	77·5	85	76	80·5
December,	81	79	80	84	67	75·5	82	72	77
January, .	80	77	78·5	84	66	75	78	71	74·5
February, .	83	79	81	82	71	76·5	78	72	75
March, .	84	81	82·5	86	75	80·5	82	79	80·5
Average,	88·5	84·1	86·3	91·1	76·5	83·8	86·9	78·3	82·6

Isthmus.

Months.	1873-74.			1874-75.			1875-76.		
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.
April, .	97	82	89·5	89	79	84	86	83	84·5
May, .	88	84	86	96	83	89·5	90	87	88·5
June, .	93	87	90	101	86	93·5	93	89	91
July, .	93	88	90·5	99	83	91	93	88	90·5
August, .	93	87	90	97	82	89·5	92	86	89
September,	90	85	87·5	98	84	91	90	87	88·5
October, .	85	80	82.5	92	77	84·5	86	77	81·5
November,	81	78	79·5	85	73	79	81	88	79·5
December,	79	76	77·5	81	72	76·5	78	76	77
January, .	78	75	76·5	80	71	75·5	78	76	77
February, .	80	77	78·5	80	74	77	77	74	75·5
March, .	82	79	80·5	87	79	83	81	80	80·5
Average,	86·5	81·5	84·	90·4	78·5	84·5	85·4	82·5	83·4

STEAMER POINT.

MONTHS.	1873-74.			1874-75			1875-76.		
	Maximum	Minimum.	Mean	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean
April, .	90	79	84·5	88	78	83	90	80	85
May, .	91	83	87	93	85	89	92	83	87·5
June, .	93	84	88·5	95	84	89·5	93	86	89·5
July, . .	92	84	88	92	82	87	90	84	87
August, .	92	85	88·5	88	80	84	90	82	86
September,	91	84	87·5	93	84	88·5	93	85	89
October, .	88	77	82·5	89	78	83.5	89	79	84
November,	84	76	80	84	74	79	86	74	80
December .	81	74	77·5	82	72	77	82	73	77·5
January, .	80	74	77	80	70	75	81	75	78
February, .	82	75	78·5	81	70	75·5	81	75	78
March, .	86	77	81·5	86	76	81	84	77	80·5
Average,	87·5	79·3	83·4	87·58	77·75	82·6	87·77	79·41	83·5

BOTANICAL NOTES.[1]—The vegetation of Aden closely resembles that of Arabia Petræa; it is eminently of a desert character, the species being few in number (only 94), and being quite disproportioned to the number of general and natural orders. Most of the species are limited in the number of individuals, a few only of the more arid forms predominating. Dipterygium glaucum, six or seven species of Caparidaceæ, Reseda Amblyocarpa, Cassia pubescens and obovata, Acacia eburnea, and a few Euphorbiaceæ, are the only common plants, and some of these are so plentiful that in many places they abound to the exclusion of all others. All the species are more or less peculiar in their habits, and some are so strange as to constitute the anomalies of the natural orders to which they belong. As examples may be enumerated—Sphærocoma Hookeri, among Caryophyllaceæ, Adenium obesum, with its almost globular fleshy trunk, naked branchlets, bearing a tuft of leaves and umbel of beautiful flowers; Moringa aptera, in which the leaves are reduced to long sub-rigid raches; the prickly Jatropha spinosa, and, strangest of all, the Æluropus Arabicus, a grass with short spiny

[1] Abridged from the *Journal of the Proceedings of the Linnean Society.* Supplement to Volume v. of Botany. Thomas Anderson, M.D., F.L.S., Bengal Medical Service.

BENGAL SECRETARIAT

leaves. The bright green colour which forms so pleasing a feature of the vegetation of the temperate and tropical regions of the globe is quite unknown in Aden. Here foliage is reduced to a minimum, and the superfluous moisture given off by leaves in less arid climates is stored up in fleshy stems against seasons of long continued drought. With the exception of some Reseda Amblyocarpa and Caparidaceæ, all plants have either glaucous whitened stems or are completely covered with a hoary pubescence. Aridity, while reducing the amount of cellular tissue, has also favoured the production of spines; and though in many cases the development has not attained actual spinosity, still in rigid or distorted branches and asperities of stem and leaf, bears witness to the modifying influence of the climate. Of the ninety-four known species that constitute the flora, sixteen bear sharp thorns in some part of their structure. Several species yield gums or resinous matter, and many are characterised by more or less pungency or aromatic odour, qualities always possessed by plants of desert regions.[1]

THE INHABITED PORTION OF THE PENINSULA.—The town and part of the military cantonment are within the Crater, and consequently are surrounded on all sides by hills, save on the eastern face, where a gap exists.

Ibn Batuta[2] describes Aden as a large city without either seed, water, or trees, but it is not so absolutely destitute of vegetation as might be inferred from this account. Some of the remains of its former magnificence are still visible in the ruins of the forts which crown every summit and the far-famed tanks.[3]

At present the town of Aden consists of about 2000 white-washed houses built of stone and mud, divided into streets and lanes; it is nearly 1400 yards broad.[4] Many of the houses are double-storied but none are noteworthy for their architecture. The whole town

[1] With regard to the absence of vegetation an attempt was made in 1875 to naturalise the 'Casuarina lateriflora,' 1000 plants of which were sent from Réunion by Mr. Perry, H.B.M.'s Consul there, but the experiment proved unsuccessful, and General Schneider reported that it was doubtful whether abundant vegetation would prove an altogether unmixed benefit, as it might render the climate more moist.

In 1877, during the months of February and March, many parts of the settlement were covered with a green mantle of portulaca. Rain fell in frequent showers during those months.

[2] *Travels of Ibn Batuta*, translated by the Rev. Samuel Lee, B.D., London, 1829.

[3] Playfair.

[4] This does not include cantonment limits. (See Plan.)

has been rebuilt since the British occupation. The dry bed of a water-course runs down to the sea from the valley in which the tanks are situated, and divides the town into two nearly equal parts. It serves to carry off the surplus of water when the reservoirs have been filled to overflowing.

The only building of any pretension in the Crater is the Court-house and Treasury office; the barracks are commodious but not handsome; the Protestant church,[1] situated on a hill, has some slight claim to honourable mention. The mess-houses of the two regiments [2] stationed in the Crater are substantial and commodious buildings.

There is a Roman Catholic establishment denominated the 'Good Shepherd' Convent, which gives shelter to emancipated slave girls. It is superintended by a mother superior and a Roman Catholic clergyman, who is also connected with the French missions in Abyssinia.[3]

There are three outlets from the Crater; to the south, a gate protected by a drawbridge leads into Hokkat Bay, where the English Cemetery [4] is situated, and further south lies the promontory of Marshag, on which is placed a lighthouse.[5] A few houses have been erected on the higher parts of this Cape, in the belief that they afford a cool residence in the hot weather.

A tunnel leads from the Crater into the Isthmus[6] position.

To the northward lies the Main Pass through which the harbour is reached. A steep hill forms the approach to this entrance on the town side, and on the harbour side a considerable decline has to be traversed by tortuous windings before the sea-level is reached; however, the road is good, and finally turns off in a westerly direction.[7]

About half a mile from the foot of the Main Pass lies the village of Maala. It consists partly of houses built of stone, but chiefly of mat huts, occupied by Somalis. Here is situated a Custom-house for the registration only, of trade, and a pier runs out from the fore-

[1] Erected in 1869.

[2] British and Native.

[3] See Part IV.—Ecclesiastical Arrangements, p. 147.

[4] Opened in 1866.

[5] See *post*, Appendix C., p. 107.

[6] For a description of the Isthmus position, see under Fortifications, p. 142.

[7] A road leading from the interior, and which is connected with one of the gates of the Isthmus position, here joins the main road. At the limit of the fortifications there is a pier of obstruction and Barrier Gate. (See Plan.)

shore, alongside which native craft can lie and discharge cargo on payment of a small fee.

Proceeding along the road about a mile to the westward, another pass has to be crossed where a spur of the main chain of hills runs down to the sea. After a few windings in and out along the water's edge, Steamer Point is arrived at, where there is a crescent[1] consisting of some fair-sized stone houses nearly all double and some treble-storied. Behind these again are several streets of double and single-storied houses reaching to the hillside. Here are two hotels,[2] a police station, and the residences of a few consuls.[3] Close by lie the coal grounds of Government and the various steam navigation companies which have depôts at Aden. Not far from the crescent to the north-westward is the landing-pier, covered in by a cast-iron shed,[4] with corrugated roof, where six twelve-pounder guns are placed for saluting purposes. Beyond and close to the sea-shore are situated a few buildings, including the Police Court and Post-office. From nearly opposite the latter a pier runs out terminating in a handsome cast-iron jetty,[5] serviceable for landing at all times of the tide. Above this part of the road, on a spur which is connected with the more lofty hills in the interior of the peninsula, barracks, a hospital, and other public buildings have been erected, as also the residences and offices of the Harbour-master, the Peninsular and Oriental and Messageries Maritimes Companies' agents. On a conical hill about a quarter of a mile beyond the Post-office stands the station flagstaff, below which lies the Protestant church.[6] Near this the road crosses the spur on which the barracks, etc., are situated, and after traversing in a south-westerly direction a plain of about 500 yards in extent, it terminates on Ras Tarshyne, on which headland are built the Residency and the mess-house and quarters of the officers of the Royal Artillery.

The Eastern Telegraph Company have erected handsome premises on Ras Baradlee to the south.

WATER SUPPLY.—The supply of water is a most important pro-

[1] Called after H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, in memory of his visit to the settlement in November 1875.

[2] Hôtel de l'Univers and Hôtel de l'Europe, both kept by Frenchmen.

[3] See *post*, p. 173.

[4] Erected in 1876.

[5] Erected in 1876.

[6] Erected in 1863 out of funds contributed half by Government, and half collected by public subscription. See Ecclesiastical Arrangements, p. 147.

blem; it has caused anxiety to both ancients and moderns, and is derived from four sources:—(*a.*) Wells, (*b.*) Aqueduct, (*c.*) Tanks and Reservoirs, (*d.*) Condensers:—

(*a.*) *Wells.*—These may be divided into two classes, those within, and those without British limits.

Water of good quality is found at the head of the valleys within the Crater and to the west of the town, where wells are very numerous; they are sunk in the solid rock to the depth of from 120 to 190 feet; in the best the water stands at a depth of 70 feet below sea level; the sweetest is the Banian Well, situated near the Khussaf Valley; it yields a daily average of 2500 gallons; the temperature of the water is 102° Fahrenheit, the specific gravity ·999, and it contains 1·16 parts of saline matter in every 2000 gallons.

Outside of British limits, close to the village of Shaikh O'thman, and on the northern side of the harbour, there is a piece of neutral[1] ground, where the bed of a mountain torrent meets the sea.[2] From wells dug in this watercourse a limited supply of water may always be obtained. It is brought over to the southern side of the bay in boats, and it is also conveyed in leather skins on camels round by land across the isthmus into the Settlement. Water of a fair quality is also obtained from wells in the village of Shaikh O'thman, and is carried into Aden by land as above described. During the hot season these two[3] latter sources of supply yield no inconsiderable portion of the quantity of water used by the civil population, as may be gathered from the fact that during the year 1875-76, 71,910 camel-loads[4] of water passed the barrier gate.

(*b.*) *Aqueduct.*—In the year 1867 the British Government entered into a convention with the Sultan of Lahej, by which they obtained permission to construct an aqueduct from two[5] of the best wells in the village[6] of Shaikh O'thman, seven miles distant. The water is received inside the fortifications into large reserve tanks, and it is thence distributed to the troops and establishments, and also to the

[1] Nominally British property, and called the Hiswah.

[2] After very heavy rains on the neighbouring hills, the flood occasionally empties itself into the harbour by this outlet.

[3] Hiswah and Shaikh O'thman Wells.

[4] Or upwards of 3,500,000 gallons.

[5] Burgess and Key's water-lifts are used at the Shaikh O'thman wells with a minimum of labour and a maximum of lifting power. They are admirably adapted for the East.

[6] See *ante.*

public in limited quantities, at one rupee per 100 gallons. This water is very indifferent in quality, and is only fit for the purposes of ablution. The Sultan of Lahej receives half the profits realised by the sale of the aqueduct-water, his share being seldom less than 1200 rupees per mensem, and he is therefore pecuniarily interested to a considerable extent in the protection and preservation of this source of supply. The aqueduct cost 2,96,933 rupees to construct, and the original intention was to extend the work up to Darab, eight miles farther inland. This latter place is situated on the bank of the torrent, the outlet of which, on the northern side of the harbour, has been already referred to, and the object was to take advantage, before the thirsty sands had time to drink it up, of the heavy rainfall in the months of May, June, July, August, and September on the hills some twenty miles farther inland.

(*c.*) *Tanks and Reservoirs.*[1]—The expediency of constructing reservoirs in which to store rain-water has prevailed in Arabia from a very early date. These are generally found in localities devoid of springs and dependent on the winter rains for a supply of water during the summer months. The most remarkable instance on record is the great dam of Mareb, built about 1700 B.C. This doubtless suggested similar reservoirs in other parts of Arabia and the neighbouring coasts of Africa, which have usually been subject to it. All the travellers who have penetrated into Yemen describe many such in the mountainous districts, while others exist in the islands of Saad-ad-dîn, near Zaila; in Kotto in the Bay of Amphilla; and in Dhalak Island near Massowah.

Those in Aden are about fifty in number, and if entirely cleared out would have an aggregate capacity of nearly thirty million imperial gallons.

There is no certain record of the construction of these reservoirs, but it is probable that they were first commenced about the second Persian invasion of Yemen in 600 A.D.[2] It is certain that they cannot be attributed to the Turks, as the Venetian officer who described the expedition of the Rais Suliman in 1538, the first occasion of Aden being conquered by that nation, says—'They (the inhabitants of Aden) have none but rain-water, which is preserved in cisterns and pits 100 fathoms deep.' Ibn Batuta also mentions

[1] The description of the tanks has been abridged from Playfair's *History of Yemen.*

[2] See Part VI.—Translation from Tarikh et Mostabsir, pp. 183 *seq.*

this fact as being the case in his day. Mr. Salt, who visited Aden in 1809, thus describes the tanks as they existed at that period—'Amongst the ruins some fine remains of ancient splendour are to be met with, but these only serve to cast a deeper shade over the devastation of the scene. The most remarkable of these reservoirs consists of a line of cisterns situated on the north-west side of the town, three of which are fully eighty feet wide and proportionately deep, all excavated out of the solid rock, and lined with a thick coat of fine stucco, which externally bears a strong resemblance to marble. A broad aqueduct may still be traced which formerly conducted the water to these cisterns from a deep ravine in the mountain above; higher up is another, still entire, which at the time we visited it was partly filled with water. Some Arab children who followed us in our excursions were highly pleased when we arrived at the spot, and plunging headlong into the water much amused us with their sportive tricks.'

When Captain Haines, then engaged in the survey of the Arabian coast, visited Aden in 1835, several of the reservoirs appear still to have been in a tolerably perfect state; besides the hanging tanks, or those built high up on the hills, several large ones were traceable round the town, but from the British occupation until very lately, no steps having been taken to repair or preserve them from further destruction, they became entirely filled up with stones and soil washed down from the hills by the rain; the people of the town had been permitted to carry away the stones for building purposes; and, with the exception of a very few which could not easily be destroyed or concealed, all trace of them was lost, save where here and there a fragment of plaster appearing above the ground indicated the supposed position of a reservoir, believed to be ruined beyond the possibility of repair.

In 1856, the restoration of these magnificent public works was commenced, and thirteen have been completed, capable of holding 7,718,630 gallons of water.[1] It is almost impossible to give such a description of these extraordinary buildings as to enable one who has not seen, thoroughly to understand them.

The range[2] of hills which forms the wall of the Crater is nearly circular; on the western side the hills are precipitous, and the rain-

[1] A number of trees have been planted in the vicinity of the tanks, and gardens laid out, making the only evergreen spot in the Settlement.

[2] Shum Shum, etc.

water descending from them is carried rapidly to the sea by means of a number of long, narrow valleys unconnected with each other; on the interior or eastern side, the hills are quite as abrupt, but the descent is broken by a large tableland occurring midway between the summit and the sea-level, which occupies about one-fourth of the entire superficies of Aden. The plateau is intersected with numerous ravines, nearly all of which converge into one valley, which thus receives a large proportion of the drainage of the peninsula. The steepness of the hills, the hardness of the rocks, and the scarceness of the soil upon them, all combine to prevent any great amount of absorption, and thus a very moderate fall of rain suffices to send a stupendous torrent of water down the valley, which, ere it reaches the sea, not unfrequently attains the proportions of a river. To collect and store this water the reservoirs are constructed. They are extremely fantastic in their shapes; some are formed by a dike being built across the gorge of a valley; in others the soil in front of a re-entering angle on the hill has been removed and a salient angle or curve of masonry built in front of it; while every feature of the adjacent rocks has been taken advantage of and connected by small aqueducts, to insure no water being lost. The overflow of one tank has been conducted into the succeeding one, and thus a complete chain has been formed reaching to the town. These reservoirs were filled for the first time on the 23d October 1857, when, though a very small proportion of the whole had been repaired, more water was collected from a single fall of rain than the whole of the wells would yield during an entire year. The annual fall of rain in Aden is very limited, seldom exceeding six or seven inches; it is manifest therefore that a large city could not entirely depend on this precarious source of supply. To remedy this defect the Sovereign of Yemen, Abd-al-Wahab, towards the close of the fifteenth century, constructed an aqueduct to convey the water of the Bir Mahait[1] into Aden, and the ruins of this magnificent public work still exist to the present day.

Rainfall.—Registers are now kept at the hospitals in the Crater, Isthmus, and Steamer Point positions, and the subjoined statement gives the registered rainfall in the Crater since 1871; previous to that year the maximum recorded in the preceding eleven years was 8·03 inches in 1870, and the mean quantity 2·45; while in 1871 the fall amounted to 24 cents only:—

[1] Playfair says 'Bir Hamid.'

RAINFALL AS REGISTERED AT THE CIVIL HOSPITAL IN THE CRATER.

MONTHS.	1872-73.		1873-74.		1874-75.		1875-76.	
	Inches.	Cents.	Inches.	Cents.	Inches.	Cents.	Inches.	Cents.
April, . . .	1	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
May, ...	0	20	0	10	0	0	0	2
June, ...	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
July, ...	0	41	0	2	0	0	0	0
August, . . .	0	98	0	27	1	58	0	0
September, . .	0	21	1	28	0	0	0	0
October, . . .	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
November, . .	0	0	0	12	0	5	0	22
December, . .	0	42	0	11	0	0	0	18
January, . . .	0	85	0	45	0	0	1	49
February, . .	0	0	0	0	0	42	0	17
March, . . .	4	53	0	0	0	0	1	65
Total, .	8	69	2	35	2	05	3	73

The amount of rainfall registered in the Crater is no criterion of the actual fall on the hills, the drainage of which goes to fill the reservoirs. Since the entire restoration of the tanks, they have been completely filled on two occasions only, in the month of May 1864 and in the same month of 1870; the heavy rainfall in 1872-73 did not entirely fill them.[1] It should be mentioned that the renewal of these great works, including repairs, had cost about 375,520 rupees[2] up to the 31st March 1874. During such time as there may be water in the tanks, the condenser in the Crater, where the major portion of the troops are stationed, is not worked. The water collected, besides being issued to the troops, is also sold to the public at one rupee per 100 gallons. The sources of supply above referred to, which are dependent for their adequacy on natural causes, are of course very uncertain, as may be gathered from what has been written; and it occasionally happens that the poorer classes of the civil population, who are unable to afford the price of distilled water, are compelled to purchase that necessary at a cost of eight annas (or nearly one shilling sterling) for a skin containing five gallons of brackish water.

(*d.*) *Condensers.*—Shortly before the opening of the Suez Canal, Government were impressed with the necessity of obtaining a plen

[1] Since the above was written, the tanks have been filled in September 1877.

[2] About £37,000.

tiful and unfailing supply of good water, and in 1867 several condensers, on the most approved principle, were ordered from England. During the year 1869 one was erected at the Isthmus, subsequently another was located at the Crater, on the island of Seerah, which is connected with the mainland of the peninsula by a causeway.

At Steamer Point an old river-flat was converted into a floating condenser. These three distilleries are capable of producing daily fresh water in the under-mentioned quantities:—

Government Property—		
Seerah Condenser, ...	9,000 gallons.	
Isthmus ditto, ...	5,600 ,,	
'Hyderabad' Flat, ...	7,000 ,,	
		21,600 gallons.
Private Property (*see post*)—		
Messrs. Luke, Thomas, & Co., Condenser,	12,000 gallons.	
Peninsular and Oriental Co., do.,	9,000 ,,	
Messrs. Eduljee Maneckjee & Sons, do.,	4,000 ,,	
		25,000

Total amount of condensed water obtainable on an emergency, 46,600 gallons per diem,—or water for 9320 Europeans at five gallons per head.

In 1875-76 condensed water was sold at the three positions at the following rates, including carriage:—

Isthmus, ...	Rs. 3 4 6	per 100 gallons.
Steamer Point, ...	3 0 9	ditto.
Camp, ...	2 10 9	ditto.

The cost of working the three[1] condensers in the same year was Rs. 18,077-7-0.

Several private companies have also established condensers. The manufactory of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, which is situated on the east of Ras Morbat, is capable of producing at a pinch 9000 gallons per diem. This Company do not sell water to the public, but only supply it to their own vessels. The Joint-Stock firm of Messrs. Luke, Thomas, & Company (Limited) have erected a condenser near the Little Pass, and sell water to the public, and more especially to the shipping, at an average cost of £1 sterling per ton of 250 gallons, delivered on board. On an emergency they could supply 12,000 gallons per diem. This firm also possesses an ice manufactory,[2] capable of turning out daily four tons of ice, which is sold at one anna per lb. Messrs. Eduljee Maneckjee &

[1] Government.

[2] See *post*, Part III.—Manufactures and Industries, p. 86.

Sons have also a condenser at Maala Bunder, from which they sell water to the public, but principally to the native craft; 4000 gallons per diem of water can be produced by this manufactory. They have also a small ice-manufactory, which can produce one ton of ice per diem.

Conveyance.—Besides the difficulty of obtaining water, there is the labour and expense of conveying it to the various parts of the Settlement where it is required for use, and the means of carriage is one of the peculiarities of the place. The Commissariat Department, which has charge of the Government sources of distribution, annually sells the contract for the conveyance of water to the different stations of the garrison. The following statement gives the average rate for the past five years at which this contract was sold:—

Camp,	Annas, 7	2½	per 100 gallons.
Isthmus,	5	3½	ditto.
Steamer Point,	9	8½	ditto.

The contractors, who make the agreement with the Commissariat Department, and who are called upon to furnish heavy security for the fulfilment of their bargain, sub-let their contracts to the possessors of troops of donkeys,[1] and the water, which is put in skins, is carried by these animals all over the Settlement.

The following is the amount of water allowed per diem to Government servants:—

Designation.	Gallons.
British Soldier,	5
Wife of ditto,	5
Child of ditto,	5
Native Soldier,	5
Wife of ditto,	3
Child of ditto,	1½
Public Followers,	3
Officers,	10
Wife of ditto,	10
Child of ditto,	5
Each Officer for Mess (additional),	5
Officer's Servant,	3
Clerk,	5
Wife of ditto,	5
Child of ditto,	2½

[1] See *post*, Part III.—Domestic Animals, p. 71.

The water that is brought in from the interior is conveyed, as before noticed, by camels, each animal carrying eight or ten large skins, containing about eight gallons each.

Possible Sources of Supply.—In connection with the subject of water supply at Aden, the following extract from a report drawn up by Major Walter Ducat, R.E., regarding the physical geography of the neighbourhood, may prove interesting. After reviewing the various possible means of obtaining water in the peninsula itself, and concluding the impracticability of a constant and good supply being available from sources[1] within British limits or the Hiswah, Major Ducat goes on to say,—

'Immediately on leaving Aden we come on a low-lying sandy plain, on which nothing but a small scrubby bush will grow. The water, which is to be met with at a depth below the surface varying from three feet to about eighteen feet throughout this tract, is directly influenced by the rise and fall of tide; and is, of course, brackish to a degree, being in fact almost, if not quite, simple sea-water. This tract of sand extends nearly to Shaikh O'thman north, and skirts the foreshore of Aden bay and the coast-line eastward, as far as El-Konis, extending inland in a belt of varying thickness, sometimes running right up into the sand-drift, at others only a few hundred yards from the sea-coast.

'Between this salt belt and the hills is an alluvial plain falling from the hills towards the sea, with a slope near the foot of the hills of about thirty feet in a mile, easing off to about seventeen feet in a mile, till it reaches the salt belt, which is very nearly dead level. Throughout this alluvial tract of country a slightly brackish, but drinkable water, is met with at a depth of from sixty to seventy feet. The water-bearing stratum seems nearly parallel to the surface of the soil when the latter has fairly taken its incline after leaving the coast.

'The soil of this part of the country is composed of a sandy clay, very retentive of moisture, and capable of high cultivation. On the

[1] (*a.*) Khussaf Valley scheme (since carried out). In September 1877 this reservoir was filled almost to the top of the dam, but unfortunately a pipe burst and much water thus escaped in a few hours; about 24 feet 6 inches remained, but this also disappeared into the bed in twenty-four hours. The water-retaining property of the rock seems entirely valueless.

(*b.*) Construction of small tanks on the hill-side from the Main Pass to Steamer Point.

(*c.*) Digging of more wells.

(*d.*) Increasing the size of the Tawella tanks.

borders of the rivers, and wherever water is obtainable, jowaree, white and red, bajree, cotton, oil-seeds, Indian corn, and tobacco, are grown; and English vegetables can be successfully cultivated. The system of irrigation pursued is that of flooding and saturating the soil once for each crop, which for those enumerated above suffices.

'The whole cultivatable area is by no means cultivated or occupied, but the system of irrigation could be extended only at great cost, as the existing channels would require remodelling.

'A considerable portion of this tract of land is taken up by a sand-drift, which, where blown up against the hills, attains to a great height, and is a hopelessly barren useless desert; but much of the lower part of this sandy desert might be easily brought under cultivation, were water available.

'This tract of land, which I have endeavoured to describe above, extending from the western border of the Abdali country eastward into the centre of the Fadhli territory, is watered by four large rivers; viz., the Toban, the Sahiba, the Bunna, and the Hussan.[1]

'*The Toban.*—The Toban takes its rise in the hills far back in the rocky wilds of the Haushabi[2] territory. For more than forty miles beyond Zaida it runs through hills, the rocky barrenness of which is almost inconceivable. For about fifteen miles of this, which is all that I have seen, it runs at the bottom of a narrow gorge, with high steep hills of granite and basalt close up to its banks, the only cultivation or vegetation visible being in the bed of the river itself. From the look of the gathering ground, and the nature of the bed in this part, one would have expected the water to be very pure and good, but the analysis of it is not favourable, the impurities I suppose being due to influences nearer its source.

'Throughout the Haushabi territory water is always running, but after the river enters the Abdali country it occasionally is dry for a few days at a time; but the Lahej district is never without water for both the autumn and spring cultivation.

'When I examined this river in January, near Hota,[3] it was running in ordinary dry season flood. I had one of the two channels

[1] See Map.

[2] A considerable distance beyond, but it is a difficult matter to ascertain the true source of a river in Arabia. It is only known as the Toban in the Haushabi country, but nearer its head it has several other names, not always known to the inhabitants of the lower districts.—*Note by Captain W. F. Prideaux.*

[3] Al Hautah.

then running measured, and then found a discharge about fourteen cubic feet a second, and assuming the second, and rather smaller channel, to be carrying only six cubic feet, which I think was certainly under the mark, we get twenty cubic feet per second, or twenty times as much as we should require for all our purposes in Aden. I was able to get a section of the two branches of the river near Hota, showing the level of the country between them, two sections of the river above the bifurcation, and a rough approximation to the fall of the bed: these are shown on drawings, and attached to this report. I also, from very careful inquiries on the ground, found the height of flood-level during freshes, and ascertained that such freshes occur at least four times in every year. I have heard of two in the last three months, and others may have come down without my having heard of them. These data will give something to calculate from when we come to consider the question of supply from this source.'

'*The Sahiba.*[1]—The next river in order from west to east, to the Juban is the Sahiba. This river has its source in the hills beyond the Ameeri country, north of the Alawi territory.

'The valley of this river is very different in character from that of the Juban, being wide and fertile, the hills, though high, being at some distance from each other and from the river. Unfortunately when I was in the Alawi country the river was quite dry, so I had no means of getting an analysis of its water, neither was I able to take any sections or levels; the size of the river, however, struck me as rather smaller than the Juban at Shuka, but was still very large. From inquiries I learnt that the Sahiba is very regular, and reliable for the autumn irrigation, having only failed to water its usual area three times in the memory of my informant, a man about thirty-five years of age; for the spring crop, however, it cannot be depended on far down its course.

'The crops grown on this river are very fine. The direction of the Sahiba, and the country it runs through, after leaving the Sahib country, can be traced on the map.

[1] From inquiries made about this river (properly Wadi Sahaiba, or the river of Sahaib, the capital of the Alawi country) it is doubtful whether there is one or two streams which might be confounded together. From Sahaib to Raha in the Haushabi country, there is a stream called by the natives Dhabab or Dhabdhab, whilst the true Sahaiba passes from the westward of Sahaib to Raha. Was only one of the streams seen and noted, or both? Neither are perennial. I rather think, too, that lower down the Sahaiba and El Willah are identical.—*Note by Captain W. F. Prideaux.*

'*The Bunna.*—The Bunna, in the character of its source, somewhat resembles the Juban, the gorge in which it runs being barren and rocky; but the river does not wind so far back into the hills, and the rocks here are different, being limestone. To ascend the valley, it is necessary to travel in the bed of the river itself, as the rocks on each side, though not so precipitous as the basalt cliffs overhanging the valley of the Juban, slope directly down to the river, leaving not even space enough for a footpath on the bank. The slope of the river-bed above Missana must be very great, but I had no opportunity of taking a section.

'The Bunna waters a very large and fertile tract of land, being used not only in its own water-shed, but carried across the Hussan river, and made to irrigate the fields of Theran and Assalah after having given its waters to Durjadj[1] and the surrounding country.

'In heavy freshes the river overflows its banks and floods all the country about Rhoa, and at times even close to Kumfur; but it does more good than harm to the land, bringing down a very large quantity of silt, which must be deposited to the benefit of the soil.

'Water is always running in the river at Missana, and Dr. Hay has kindly made a hurried analysis of it for me, which will be found in appendix.

'*The Hussan River.*—The Hussan, like the Sahiba, runs a considerable distance in the hills in an open inhabited valley, before it enters on the plain. It has a long winding course, but owing to the violence of its floods, its waters are turned to less account than those of either of the other three rivers mentioned above.

'When I saw the Hussan it was dry, so I had no opportunity of getting samples of its water to be analysed; but as its distance from Aden is considerable, it is not likely to be immediately useful, and I consequently gave less study to it than to the other rivers nearer to us.

'*Spring at Missana.*—In addition to the above four rivers, I was fortunate enough to discover another, and I think most valuable supply, in a spring near Missana. About a mile from the banks of the Bunna river, but evidently having no connection with it, water wells up from the soil, forming a spring, about twenty yards long and two wide, discharging at present about 750 gallons per minute, though capable probably of considerable augmentation if necessary.

'This spring, the water of which is constant, being in no way influenced by the rainfall in the vicinity, and having never been

[1] Dirjaj.

known to fail, is I believe artesian, the source being probably far back on the highlands beyond the hills, and the connecting link, either through or under the limestone, which dips to the south. The soil, through which the water forces its way up in small eddies all over the area of the spring, is a stiff yellow clay.

'By a series of careful barometric observations, I calculate the height to be about 440 feet above the sea, and its distance from Aden is about forty-three miles. The water is very pleasant to the taste.'

Major Ducat proposed to utilise the water of the Missana spring, but the project did not meet with the approval of Government, probably owing to the necessity for forty-three miles of piping, and the difficulty of establishing posts along the line, and of preventing mischief. Moreover, it was first resolved to try the Khussafbund scheme, as being within the Settlement itself. It is possible that the financial results of so vast a project would have to be satisfactorily shown before Government would consent to sanction it.

Improvements under Construction:—

(1.) Excavating a well double the size of the existing one at the Seerah condenser.

(2.) Laying a line of iron piping from the Seerah condenser to a point behind the station library, where is to be erected a large iron tank 40 feet square and 8 feet deep (roofed over), to hold 80,000 gallons of water.

(3.) Laying a line of piping from the Pier of Obstruction to the two reservoirs in the large Isthmus near the Native Infantry lines and the condenser. The water for this to be delivered by the 'Hyderabad' flat at the pier-head.

(4.) Laying a line of piping from the existing pipe near the Post-office Pier to the old masonry tanks below the first Assistant's house. Roofing these tanks, and plastering them inside with Portland cement.

The estimated cost of these four projects combined is upwards of 35,000 rupees.

NATURAL HISTORY.[1]—The Fauna of Aden presents no special peculiarities as compared with the rest of Yemen.

Mammalia.—The various animals to be found in a wild state

[1] The notes on natural history have been kindly supplied by Surgeon Hay, M.D., of the Bombay M.D.

are dogs, foxes, a few jackals, occasionally a hyena, rats of two species, mice, and two or three kinds of bats. A few dog-faced monkeys inhabit the inaccessible parts of the hills, but are seldom seen. Porpoises are common all round the coast; whales appear occasionally.

Reptiles.—There are two known kinds of snakes, one of which is asserted by some observers to be poisonous; cases of snake-bite which might have terminated fatally [1] are said to have occurred. Two species of lizard are present, and a chameleon has been seen.

Fishes.—Fish abound in the harbour, and in the sea all round the peninsula. Almost all are used for food.

It has not been found possible to identify the various species by their scientific names, which latter are enumerated by Playfair in his *Fishes of Zanzibar*, but the native names are given of the edible kinds, so that any future observer will, if possessed of the requisite knowledge, have little difficulty in pursuing the subject.

(1.) Large fish caught by line or net at some distance from land :—

Dairâk, .	The 'Surmai' or Seer.
Shirwah, . .	
Ba'ha, . .	
Sokhla, . .	
Zainub, . .	
Jaram, . . .	
Dthurab, . . .	Dolphin.
Lokham naimarani, .	Spotted Shark.
Lokham Abu Saif, .	Saw Shark.
Lokhan bokat, . .	Hammer-headed Shark.
Na'al, ...	Ground Shark.
Battan, or Sultan-al-bahr,	Large Sea Shark.

The inhabitants of Aden use a great deal of shark's flesh as food, believing it to possess peculiar restorative properties.

The large ray (Arabic, Suffan) is speared and caught with the hook, and is eaten.

A large species of rock cod is occasionally caught, and this fish has been known to inflict severe injuries on divers.

Sharks are abundant, but have not been known to attack any bathers or swimmers.

[1] Assistant-Surgeon Cooper, Bombay M.D., so asserts.

(2.) Small fish taken by line, casting-net, or caught in baskets resembling 'lobster creels' in Scotland:—

Arabî, .	Mullet, caught near the shore with casting-net.
Helfi, .	do.
Bulaija, .	With hook.
Baiâdth, .	Hook and net.
Sabâri, .	do.
Kushar, .	Hook and basket.
Khôrâm,	Garfish (belone), hook and nets.
Bâgha, .	Hook and net.
Jahash, .	Hook.
Kud, .	Hook and net.
Hubaisah,	Hook.
Laffâf, .	do.
Kâs, .	Casting-net and hook.
Haddâs, .	Basket.
Sumbaiah,	Net and Hook.
Jidab, . / Aîd, .	Resemble sardines—casting-net.
Sâm, .	Hook nets
Ambêr, .	Baskets.
Bassan, .	Hook.
Kashbur,	Hook and basket.
Zîzân, .	Baskets.
Môka, .	do.
Mokhniff,	Eels—hook and spear.

The above are the commoner descriptions, but many other species are captured in small quantities.

Many 'chelidontidæ' haunt the numerous coral reefs in the vicinity, and their beauty, brilliant colouring, and quaint marking, specially strike the casual observer.

Birds.[1]—The following birds have been noticed at Aden:—

Brahmini kite, or Arabian kite (Milvus Ægyptius). This bird is of special use as a scavenger, and is very common. Several species of hawks, some of considerable beauty, frequent the lofty cliffs on the hills. The Little Owl (Noctua Passerina) has been occasionally observed.

One species of flycatcher is not uncommon.

[1] The notes on birds have been furnished by Mr. Chevallier of the Eastern Telegraph Company.

One species of wagtail is common.

Two species of Hoopoe are birds of passage.

Raven (Corvus corax).—A few individuals only are permanent residents, but occasionally large flocks appear, which make a short stay.

Crow (Corvus corone) is an occasional visitor, though common a few miles into the interior.

Jay—An occasional visitor.

Rock pigeons—As usual in India, frequent the neighbourhood of Hindu temples.

Doves—Are found in the neighbourhood of the tanks and wells in the crater.

Quail—Sometimes seen.

Lark—Not uncommon.

Oriel—A visitor. Very common at Lahej.

Sparrow—Rarely seen, though common within a few miles.

Waterfowl of many kinds abound in the harbours and numerous creeks in the neighbourhood. The following have been identified :—

Common Heron (Ardea cinerea).
Black Heron.
White Heron.
Abyssinian Erody.
Pelican (Pelecanus Onocrotalus).
Flamingo (Phœnicopterus ruber).
Curlew (Numenius arquata).
Whimbrel (Numenius phœopus).
Godwit (Limosa melanura).
Common Sandpiper (Tringa hypoleuca).
Red Shank (Tringa calidris).
Golden Plover (Charadrius pluvialis).
Dunlin (Tringa variabilis).
Dotterel (Charadrius morinellus).
Oyster-Catcher (Hæmatopus ostralegus).
Great black-backed Gull (Larus marinus).
Herring Gull (Larus argentatus).
Laughing Gull (Larus Atricilla).
Spoonbill (Platalea leucorodia).
Diver.
Tern (Sterna hirundo).

All the above, with the exception of the diver, tern, and golden plover, are common.

Insects.—Notwithstanding the scarcity of water and vegetation, insect life is abundant. Of the Lepidoptera there are about twelve or fourteen kinds of butterflies, including the ubiquitous painted lady (Cynthia cardui), and several species of Peiris, Polyomati, etc. The species of Noctuæ are numerous, and are frequently present in so large number in the hot season as to be troublesome. Some are of considerable size. There are several species of Sphynx, the larva of one of which almost denudes of their leaves the euphorbia bushes that grow on the hills. The Coleoptera are badly represented; the larva of the Anobium does much harm to the timber used in house-building. A blister-fly (Cantharidis) is occasionally seen.

Small flights of locusts occasionally take place.

There are several species of grasshoppers and mantis.

Ants, black and white, large and small, abound.

The common house-fly is not unfrequently a nuisance. Mosquitoes swarm. Ticks, fleas, cockroaches, and bugs are only too abundant; a large green species of the latter appears in the hot weather.

There are several bees of the solitary kind, both boring and building; the hornet is also present.

There are several kinds of dragon-flies, one of large size occasionally abundant. A black ichneumon-fly is common. There are several species of scorpions, some of large size.

Crustacea.—This genus is well represented by some thirty different species. Two kinds of crabs, as also lobsters and prawns, are eaten.

Shells.—There is a great variety of shells to be found along the sea-beach. Some are of considerable size; cowries are very plentiful. The rock-oyster is common, and is appreciated as food. Some of the larger univalves are also eaten. There are one or two land shells. There are two species of cuttle-fish, the Sepia—called by the Arabs Sima-abu-rîsha,—and another with short arms called Sima-abu-Mahara. The octopus (Abu Kab) is also found of considerable size.

Several coral reefs run across the bays, and with little trouble fine specimens are fished up by Somali boys, which, after bleaching, they sell to passengers.

PART II.—THE PEOPLE.

POPULATION.—There has always been an inclination to over-estimate the population of the Settlement, probably because so large a number of the inhabitants live almost entirely in public.

In 1842, three years after the British occupation of Aden, the population was found to have risen from 6000 to 15,000, exclusive of the military.

A census was taken on the 1st January 1856, when the total population, *including the military*, was found to amount to 20,738 souls, showing an increase of 2000 in fourteen years. The results obtained by the census of 1872 are given in the following statement:—

	No.	TOTAL.
EUROPEANS.		
English, Scotch, and Irish,	182	
Other Europeans,	26	
		208
AMERICANS.		
Americans,	1	
		1
AFRICANS.		
Africans,	5346	
		5346
MIXED RACES.		
Mixed Races,	144	
		144
ASIATICS.		
Arabs,	8241	
Chinese,	17	
Persians,	40	
Turks,	47	
Egyptians,	28	
Other Asiatics not Natives of India and Burmah,	193	
		8566
NATIVES OF INDIA AND BURMAH.		
Bheels,	3	
Hindus,	851	
Parsis,	121	
Jews,	1435	
Mahomedans,	2614	
		5024
Grand Total,	...	19,289

The classification according to employment is as follows:—

Persons employed under Government or Municipal or Local Authorities,	542
Professional Persons,	74
Persons in Service or performing Personal Offices,	1760
Persons engaged in Agriculture or with Animals,	1386
Persons engaged in Commerce or Trade,	2734
Persons engaged in Mechanical Arts, Manufactures, and Engineering, and persons employed in the sale of articles manufactured, or otherwise prepared for consumption,	3004
Miscellaneous Persons,	9789
MILITARY.	
The Garrison and Camp-followers numbered	3433
Making a Grand Total of	22,722

It will be seen from the above that in spite of the increasing prosperity of the Settlement, there has been an augmentation of 2000 persons only in the sixteen years that have intervened between the two last enumerations. In 1866 the population was estimated at 20,654, exclusive of the troops, so that in the past six years there has been, if anything, a slight decrease.

Within the last four years there has been a considerable amount of immigration from the surrounding district of Yemen, owing to the dissatisfaction felt by the people with Turkish rule;—moreover, the demand for unskilled labour must have increased, and as there is no diminution in the supply, the only inference is that the population has also increased.

DIFFERENT RACES.—The Europeans enumerated in the census consist of the agents, managers, employés, etc., of Mercantile and Steam Navigation Companies.

The Africans are principally from the east coast of that continent, the Somalis who occupy the African coast of the Gulf of Aden furnishing the greater number; these races seldom rise above the labouring class.

The more respectable of the Arabs are merchants, the remainder are shopkeepers, brokers, camel and donkey drivers, porters, day-labourers, and coal-coolies. The Chinese are nearly all carpenters and boatmen. The Persians are merchants and shopkeepers; the Turks are hawkers and petty dealers; the Egyptians employ themselves like the Arabs; the Hindus are mostly Banian traders, artisans, and menial servants; the Parsis are nearly all in business;

the Jews are merchants, petty dealers, reed and mat workers, and jewellers; the Mahomedan natives of India consist chiefly of belated hadjis who have settled down into petty shopkeepers, artisans, masons, policemen, domestic servants, etc.; a considerable sprinkling of Borahs, Khojahs, Mehmons, are also occupied in mercantile affairs, and do not come under the category of hadjis who have made Aden their home. It is unnecessary to refer to the military element of the population.

A very full account of the various races inhabiting Aden will be found in the travels of Von Maltzen,[1] which, although written in 1870, may well serve, with a few modifications, for the present day.

It is necessary to justify the remark regarding the frequent over-estimation of the population. Very many of the Somalis and Arabs who enter the Settlement in search of employment are not married, or have not their families with them; these live in messes or parties of fellow-tribe or countrymen, eating their meals in the Mokhbazah or cook-shop, and sleeping in coffee-shops or the open, as they find themselves when darkness falls. It is obvious that the numerous coal-coolies and labourers who are always passing and repassing in the pursuit of their usual avocations, or who are lounging about coffee-shops and places of public resort waiting to be engaged, must often present themselves to the eye of the casual observer, a second, if not a third or fourth time, thus giving an exaggerated idea of the actual number of persons in the Settlement. Moreover, during certain hours of the day, almost all the male native inhabitants are to be found out of doors.

Occupation.—The occupation of the various inhabitants of Aden may be classified as follows:—

(*a.*) Merchants.
(*b.*) Hawkers.
(*c.*) Shopkeepers.
(*d.*) Domestic servants.
(*e.*) Carriage-drivers, camel and donkey drivers, porters, etc.
(*f.*) Artisans and skilled labourers, clerks, etc.
(*g.*) Coal and cargo coolies, etc.
(*h.*) Boatmen, sailors, fishermen, etc.
(*k.*) Military followers.
(*m.*) Non-residents.

(*a.*) *Merchants.*—These may be divided into three classes, the first class belonging to old-established, well-known, and compara-

[1] Reisen: Von Maltzen (1873).

tively wealthy English, American, German, French, Italian, and Indian firms. They carry on mercantile business according to the usual practice of civilised countries, and it is therefore unnecessary to enter into further particulars regarding them.

The second class of merchants are almost all Arabs. They are sometimes very wealthy men, and their principal business is the importation of coffee for sale to the first described class of merchants.

The third class may be more properly termed 'petty traders.' It consists of Arabs, Somalis, and Indians, who go across to the various ports in the Somali country, where they remain during the whole of the trading season—that is, from October to May,—sending over small consignments of merchandise and live stock to the merchants in Aden, who have advanced them piece goods, rice, dates, etc., with which to carry on barter with the Somalis, etc.

(*b.*) *Hawkers.*—Hawkers are very numerous; perhaps it would be more proper to call them brokers, and their Arabic name, *Dallal*, is well known to all who have ever visited the East. These people act as middlemen in almost every wholesale transaction that takes place, from the purchase of a sheep, for three or four rupees, to an investment in coffee of the value of $10,000 (£2000). They receive a small percentage from both purchaser and seller, which varies with the value of the purchase.

The following are the usual rates of brokerage :—

Article or Animal.	Rate.	Per	Remarks.
Sheep or Goat,	6 pies,	head.	Paid by purchaser only.
Camel, . .	1$,	,,	Paid half by buyer and half by seller.
Horse, . .	2 rupees,	,,	Ditto.
Bullock or Cow,	8 annas,	,,	Ditto.
Donkey, . .	3 ,,	,,	Ditto.
Fowls, . .	3 pies,	,,	By seller only.
Coffee, . .	6 ,,	dollar.	Ditto.
Saffron, . .			
Hides, . .			
Dates, . .	2$,	100$,	By the seller $1½ and buyer $½.
Rice, . .	1 anna,	bag.	By the buyer.
Grain, . .	2 annas,	camel-load.	By the seller.
Grass, . .	9 pies,	,,	By the seller 6 pies, and buyer 3 pies.
Wood, . .			
Kirbee. . .			
Fruit, . .	1 anna,	,,	By the seller.
Vegetables, .			
Water, . .			

This occupation is so congenial to the Arabs and Somalis, requiring, as it does, no physical exertion, no capital, and affording an unlimited field for intrigue and chicane, that the number of brokers would be unlimited were it not that every one practising this profession requires to obtain a license from the Political Resident; even the necessaries of every-day life, such as fowls, eggs, firewood, forage, etc., cannot be purchased without the intervention of these grasping middlemen.

The following is an example of their method of doing business. The live stock that is imported is landed at a pier about a mile from the gate leading into the Crater. On the arrival of a boat from the African coast, as soon as the sheep, etc., are landed, they are eagerly purchased by these brokers, who promise payment if the owner will accompany them to the Crater. On the way thither the first purchaser disposes of his investment to another buyer on consideration of a small percentage, and the original seller is turned over to the new purchaser, and this operation has been known to take place four times during the passage of a single sheep from the landing-pier to the main gate. Some idea may be gathered of the profits of this profession when it is stated that brokers can afford to pay a monthly tax of three, two, or one rupee, according to their classification.

(*c.*) *Shopkeepers.*—These are of all races. The Indians and Persians are mostly belated hadjis; the Arabs are, as a rule, men who have failed to earn their living in any other way. Several Banians have small unpretending shops, where they retail cloth, etc., to a considerable value. The grain-seller, the confectioner, grocer, general dealer, and water-seller, are all amply represented. Bread, fruits, etc., are hawked about the street by women. Money-changing is carried on at street corners by Jews and Banians. A few persons are permitted to trade afloat, purchasing and selling fruit, vegetables, etc., under license from the Conservator of the Port, for which a monthly tax of two rupees is charged, and credited to the Port Fund.

There are several large shops in the Settlement kept by Parsis and Borahs. The principal are the establishments of Messrs. Cowasjee Dinshaw and Brothers at Steamer Point, and of Mr. Muncherjee Eduljee's son, in the Crater. At both these shops almost anything that could ever be wanted may be purchased.

(*d.*) *Domestic Servants.*—There are, of course, a considerable number of persons employed by the European and Indian residents

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as domestics; but as these people differ in nowise from the ordinary Indian servants, either in name or the work they perform, it is needless to describe them, further than to say that only particular tribes of Somalis and the lower classes of Arabs affect this employment. The wages of Indian servants are very high in Aden, as the accompanying scale will show. This is due to the difficulty experienced in inducing good domestics to live in Aden, on account of the distance from their native country, and the general expensiveness of living in the Settlement. Establishments are generally framed after the model of the Bombay Presidency, and Indian servants are as a rule inhabitants of that division of British India.

	Rupees.
Head Servant, ...	20 to 30
Second do., ...	15 to 20
Washerman (depends on the number in family), ...	7 to 25
Cook, ...	15 to 25
Coachman or Groom, . . .	10 to 18
Female Servants, . . .	10 to 20
Peons or Messengers, . . .	10 to 15
Boatmen, ...	10 to 15
Tailor, ...	15 to 20

N.B.—All the above expect also a daily ration of one gallon condensed and two gallons of brackish water, or a corresponding increase in pay.

(*e.*) *Carriage-Drivers, etc. etc.*—The Aden carriage-driver, with his extreme volubility though limited vocabulary, is familiar to all passengers Eastward *via* the Suez Canal. He is paid from three to four annas out of each rupee he hands over to his employer. Public conveyances are licensed under Bombay Act VI. of 1863. The average earnings of a carriage-driver are about R.1 per diem, and it is considered by the Somalis one of the most profitable and desirable of occupations, owing to the opportunity it affords for dishonesty. An owner is entirely in the hands of his drivers. At present the business is almost altogether in the hands of the Ayyal Ahmed tribe of Somalis, who have succeeded in ousting nearly all drivers of other races or tribes. It is a peculiarity of the Somalis to hang together by tribes and families in their occupations, and it gives them great advantages, by enabling them to combine to coerce employers.

The camel and donkey drivers form a very numerous class; the former, not including Arabs from the interior, chiefly employ their animals in carrying water; the latter, besides the conveyance of water, also use their asses in carrying the materials required for building, road-making, etc.; a considerable number of donkeys are kept or hired out for riding purposes. It is extremely difficult to estimate accurately the earnings of these men; but, judging from appearances, their trade cannot be very lucrative, and this class probably do not make more than eight annas per diem. A large number of the camel and donkey drivers were formerly inhabitants of the now ruined sea-port town of far-famed Mokha.

Porters, etc.—Only Jews and Arabs ever care to endure the physical exertion required for the occupation of porter; the former are not numerous, and the latter not unfrequently are of Egyptian origin. Although small in stature, and not very powerfully built, they yet manage to stagger along under surprisingly heavy loads. Their earnings are inconsiderable, and, as they are not licensed, the only tariff is that of established custom; for instance, for carrying a moderate load from the Crater to Steamer Point from four[1] to eight annas is usually asked; for doing odd jobs within a small radius the sum demanded is from one to two annas a trip, unless hired by the day. The earnings of an Aden porter may be roughly estimated at about six annas per diem. In connection with these men must be mentioned the ordinary day-labourer, whose services can be obtained at five annas per diem to assist in building, road-making, carpentering, and the numerous odds and ends of work for which unskilled labour suffices. Numbers of Indian, Somali, and Seedee women are employed in sifting and cleaning coffee; the Indians are, most of them, the wives of the Sepoys of the native regiment and camp-followers. Of course, employment of this nature is not continuous, yet ten rupees per mensem may be earned in this way by any energetic adult woman.[2] Children working as day-labourers receive from two to three annas per diem; and, if well looked after, can do as much work, provided no great physical power is required, as adults.

Arabs seem to find the occupation of water-carrier congenial. The sweepers are generally Indians; the outcast Arabs (Khadims),[3]

[1] Generally four annas one way, and returning with a load, six to eight annas.

[2] As a consequence, married Sepoys are but seldom in debt to local money-lenders in Aden.

[3] The origin of these people is a matter of dispute.

and low-born Somalis and negroes (Jarbarti), do scavengers' work. The pay of water-carriers and scavengers is about ten rupees per mensem.

Many Arab and Somali women go about vending cakes[1] of fermented and unfermented bread, as also cups of buttermilk (Katîb), and occasionally sweetmeats.

(*f.*) *Artisans*,[2] *etc.*—Besides the artisans and skilled labourers in Government employ, there are a considerable number of tradesmen who work for hire, such as jewellers, blacksmiths, carpenters, tinworkers, masons, mechanics, shoemakers, tailors, dyers, mat and reed workers, bookbinders, bakers, butchers, etc.

The jewellers are mostly Jews, and their handicraft is not very excellent. A few Indians also follow this calling.

The blacksmiths are almost invariably Indians, and their services are very difficult to obtain, most being in private employ. Some, however, occupy themselves in repairing carriages.

The best carpenters are Indians, but some Arabs employ themselves in boat-building,—a branch of industry which formerly flourished at 'Mokha,' but owing to the decay of that sea-port has been, of late years, transferred to Aden.[3]

Many Indian Borahs work in tin, and the large number of gallon measures used in the distribution of water must find them in itself sufficient work.

The masons, bricklayers, etc., are all indifferent workmen, as may be judged from the appearance of the houses. This class are generally Indians, Arabs, and Jews.

The mechanics are few in number, and are entirely employed by the large private companies as engineers,[4] boiler-makers, etc., and they are generally Indians and Parsis.

The shoemakers are very few in number, and they are usually Indians, but particular tribes of Somalis also practise this trade.

Tailoring seems to be a favourite occupation with the poorer classes of Indians, who have settled down on their way to or from the pilgrimage. Very little can be said for the excellency of their workmanship.

The occupation of dyer is entirely in the hands of a few Arabs, whose operations are limited to giving piece goods a blue colour,

[1] See under Food Grains, Part III., p. 64.

[2] See also under Manufactures and Industries, Part III., p. 79.

[3] For an account of boat-building, as carried on at Aden, see Part III., p 83.

[4] Europeans and East Indians are also employed.

and the process, judging from the appearance of the wearers of the materials dyed, seems to have the effect of tinting the person clothed almost as brilliantly as the fabric; other dyes are also used with very similar results.[1]

Mat and reed work constitutes one of the numerous occupations of the Jews, but, of late years, owing to the discouragement given by the authorities to the construction of temporary dwellings and outhouses, etc., the number of persons engaged in this calling is on the decrease. The Somali women, who are naturally industrious, weave excellent mats.[2]

There are a few bookbinders in the Settlement, chiefly Jews. Their workmanship is very indifferent.

Aden boasts of a Government Steam Bakery, which may be said to have taken the bread out of the mouths of the journeymen bakers; still, a few Indians continue to carry on this trade in a desultory way, chiefly at Steamer Point, where the demands of the shipping require a capricious supply, which the Government bakery cannot always furnish.

Butchers are numerous, and are always, as might be expected, Mahomedans, more frequently Arabs. The Government commissariat contractor has a monopoly of the slaughter-houses, and charges a small amount per head for animals killed on his premises.

Lime-burning is also practised by a few Arabs; the business is lucrative.[3]

A certain number of better-educated Eurasians, Parsis, and Indians, and a few Arabs, are employed as accountants and clerks in the offices of mercantile firms. There are no persons in Aden, with the exception of Government servants, who practise any of the learned professions.

The following wages table may have some value:—

Class of Workmen.	Monthly Wage.
Boiler Maker, ...	Rs.45 to 60
Hammerman, ...	„ 25 to 30
Blacksmith, ...	„ 50 to 70
Bellows Boy, ...	„ 7 to 9
Carpenter, ...	„ 45 to 60
Engineer, ...	„ 90 to 150

[1] See also Manufactures and Industries, Part III., p. 82.

[2] See *ibid.* Part III., p. 80.

[3] See *ibid.* Part III., p. 81.

Class of Workmen.	Monthly Wage.
Clerks (English), ...	Rs.30 to 300
Fireman, Stoker, ...	„ 12 to 20
Labourer, ...	„ 10 to 15
Mason, ...	„ 30 to 45

(*g.*) *Coal and Cargo Coolies.*[1]—The number of persons at a port like Aden required to unload fuel from vessels and to coal steamers is of course great; but the supply seems to equal the demand. In discharging ships laden with coal, the local agent or the captain generally contracts with a headman (Muccadum) to supply such number of labourers as may be required to discharge the ship within the number of days allowed in the charter-party, and it has been found that these men can discharge upwards of 500 tons per diem under favourable circumstances. This branch of business is much affected by the Somalis, who, unless left to do their work in their own time and way, are apt to cause shipmasters much trouble by striking at inopportune times; many of these men are half, if not whole, savages, and their impatience of restraint and interference often leads to affrays with the European crews of vessels in which they are employed.

The coaling of steamers is carried out by gangs of Arabs, and sometimes Somalis, who work under headmen in the employ of the Company to which the vessel may belong or may be consigned; these men work cheerfully day or night, and they can put on board fifty to sixty tons per hour. Forty men can coal a steamer at the rate of thirty tons an hour.

Coolies employed in loading and discharging cargo are of the same class, and are worked under a similar system. The wages earned by the above classes varies from eight annas to one rupee per diem. All the above Coolies pay a yearly license-tax of 4 annas per head.

(*h.*) *Boatmen,*[2] *etc.*—The boatmen in Aden are entirely Somalis; they are necessarily under Government control, as passenger-boats are licensed under an Act[3] of the Bombay Legislature. The earnings to be gained in this pursuit depend of course on the share the worker has in the boat, and varies from ten to fifty rupees per mensem. Boatmen are licensed in the same way as Coolies.

[1] There are upwards of 900 men thus employed.

[2] Including the crews of ballast and bumboats, there are upwards of 700 persons engaged as boatmen.

[3] Bombay Act VI. of 1863.

Many Arabs, Negroes, and Somalis engage themselves as firemen on board steamers,[1] and they receive from twelve to eighteen rupees per mensem, with rations; and unless British subjects, or hired for service in British registered vessels, when the shipping master engages them, they are taken on at the office of the Consul of the nation to which the vessel may belong. These men pay a yearly license-tax of 8 annas per head.

Many Arabs employ themselves as fishermen; the calling is a poor one, the earnings can be seldom more than eight annas per diem. This class of men seem to prefer the hand-to-mouth existence, never caring to work while they have a penny in their pockets.

There are of course a considerable number of Arabs and Africans who work as sailors, and have their houses and families in Aden. The calling is precarious, and barely suffices to support them during the time they may remain unemployed. A considerable number of Jews, Indians, and Somalis employ themselves as bumboat-men.

(*k.*) *Military.*—Besides enlisted men there are the usual number of followers, who attach themselves to military camps, and at an isolated station like Aden, where every establishment requires to be self-contained and perfect, the number of these people is of course greater than it would otherwise be.

(*m.*) *Non-Residents.*—The non-resident population may be divided into two classes—the floating and the land. The former comprises the crews of all vessels and native craft visiting the port; the latter are Arabs from the interior, who accompany the numerous Kafilahs that enter the Settlement. Many Arabs from the Lahej, Fadhli, Akrabi, and neighbouring districts are almost daily visitors.

MATERIAL CONDITION.—The inhabitants of Aden are, with a few exceptions, not very wealthy. Many Arabs, Somalis, and Seedees earn a few rupees by working afloat, after which they proceed to purchase a mat-house in the Maala village, where they settle down until they have spent all their earnings, and are frequently compelled to sell their very dwellings; they then go off again, occasionally leaving their wives and families in utter destitution. Others again, who work or trade in the Settlement itself, manage to scrape together enough money to buy or build a stone house, which is frequently mortgaged before three months' possession are over. Of course there are a considerable number of well-to-do persons in the Settlement, but even they often have recourse to the money-lender.

Money-lending.—The Aden money-lender is almost invariably

[1] Nearly 600 men follow this calling.

a Jew or Banian, it being contrary to the precepts of the Koran for the faithful to take interest from a co-religionist, but in lieu thereof such Mahomedans as advance money (generally Indians) avoid the letter of the sacred law by accepting a mortgage on moveable or immoveable property, which is allowed to remain in the custody of the mortgager, who is charged a certain amount per diem or per mensem as hire. Most agreements are now written on stamped paper, which is supposed by the more ignorant classes to possess a virtue in itself, apart from the writing it may contain. With the exception of documents drawn up elsewhere under legal advice, or prepared in the Municipal Office, or by the Establishment of the Residents' Court, under the superintendence of the Assistants, most contracts are very loosely worded, and sometimes are quite unintelligible. This is of course due to the entire absence of legal advisers of all kinds in Aden. The rates of interest charged vary with the means of the borrower and the nature of the security. In small transactions on personal security, in loans up to 100 rupees, where an article is given in pawn, or merchandise hypothecated, and in mortgages upon immoveable property, the rate of interest is from one to two per cent. per mensem. In almost all transactions the Government rupee is the standard used. Six per cent. per annum is considered a fair return for money invested in the purchase of houses. A few wealthy firms are the principal money-lenders. Interest is charged for the English year. Banians and Indian Mahomedans keep their accounts as in India; Jews and Arabs have but one account-book, in which they enter all transactions. The amount of property mortgaged varies little from year to year, and the Civil Court is universally used as a machine for recovering debts; but few false claims are ever brought forward, and the Court officials are never accused of keeping defendants in ignorance of the fact that suits have been filed. In cases where decrees have been passed, application for execution is almost invariably made, but the Court seldom permits the creditor to imprison the debtor, and the civil jail has not often more than sixteen or seventeen occupants during the course of a year. The better classes of artisans appear to keep pretty free from debt.

The following examples are given as illustrations of the method of conducting business in Aden :—

A. purchases two bales of shirting from B. on three months' credit, one-third of the price to be paid at the end of each month. A. carries the goods to Berbera, where he barters them for ghee, gum,

coffee, etc., which he consigns to a friend in Aden for disposal, and remaining absent avoids payment for the piece-goods at the agreed intervals; his friend sells the consignment in Aden and purchases more cotton goods with the proceeds, which he forwards to A. In this manner A. uses B.'s money for five or six months. At the close of the season A. returns to Aden with coffee and other merchandise, B. at once duns him, and, not obtaining satisfaction, immediately files a suit, and attaches A.'s goods before judgment. If A.'s transactions have proved profitable, he pays B., otherwise a decree is given against him, and his goods are sold in execution; but if A. has sustained loss, or if he be dishonest, as not unfrequently happens, B. does not obtain the full amount of his debt by the sale of A.'s goods, and he accordingly applies to the Court for execution against the person; if there be any evidence of fraud the debtor is imprisoned, otherwise some arrangement is come to, invariably to the loss of the creditor. It occasionally happens that a debtor, finding himself considerably involved, absconds, and from a safe distance, out of British territory, through a friend in Aden, compromises with his creditors for a few annas in the rupee, when he returns and commences afresh.

Men of little means can carry on business as petty traders or general merchants by means of this three months' credit system. The 20th of each month is usually the day fixed for payment, and a dishonest person may succeed in working it very profitably. For instance: A. possesses 200 rupees in cash; with this he proceeds to purchase goods from several merchants on three months' credit. None of the persons dealing with him are of course aware of the actual extent of his means, and trust him to the amount of 300 or 400 rupees each. A. opens a shop, in which he sells the goods, for one, perhaps two months, paying the necessary instalments; he then conceals his cash, makes away with the rest of the goods on his hands, and declares himself bankrupt. The creditors resort to the Court and obtain an attachment on any property that can be found, which is eventually sold for their benefit, and they obtain a few annas in the rupee. Occasionally persons of this description disappear altogether. It sometimes happens that one of these gentlemen is imprisoned for a considerable time in the civil jail, until his creditors are weary of paying for his subsistence. This style of doing business is more particularly practised by Mehmons from Kutch, and instances have been known of individuals succeeding three or even four times in imposing on the credulity of those who

have been foolish enough to trust them, and have already suffered at their hands.

The action of the Courts would elsewhere be considered inquisitorial, but in Aden it seldom happens that either the plaintiff's or defendant's circumstances are unknown to the officer before whom the suit is heard, and the latter *must* be guided by this knowledge in deciding what order to make.

Expenditure (Ordinary).—It will be convenient to divide the population into four divisions, viz., Europeans, Asiatics (including Arabs, Indians, etc.), Africans (including Somalis and Dankalis, but excluding Seedees, who live like the Arabs), and Jews:—

EUROPEANS.—Europeans live in Aden in exactly the same manner as in India, but the actual expenditure incurred is about twenty per cent. in excess of what it would be in Bombay, and consequently still greater than what would be required in the Mofussil. Of course wines, spirits, beer, and European stores are somewhat cheaper than in India, owing to Aden being a free port, but, unless private individuals import for their own requirements, such articles can only be purchased from the local shopkeepers at about Indian prices. Expenditure of course is regulated by circumstances.

ASIATICS.—Under this head are included all Asiatic races and Seedees, that is, Swahilis. It will be convenient to subdivide this division into three classes,—wealthy, middling, and labouring; and the descriptions which follow are to be taken as referring to the case of a family consisting of a man, his wife, and two children.

Wealthy.—In this class are included merchants, traders, and others, who are comparatively rich. These persons spend about 300 rupees per mensem; they possess substantial houses of their own, consisting of three or four rooms, furnished with a few carpets, pillows, Indian-made cots, cooking utensils, and the universal hookah, with an ornamental stand. Travelled Arabs and Indians have also chairs, cupboards, tables, and other articles used by Europeans. Three indoor servants are kept, receiving from six to ten rupees per mensem, with food. A groom, on Rs.10 to Rs.15, is also required when a carriage and horse is kept. The latter luxury requires at least Rs.35 per mensem, and the average expenditure for servants (outdoor and indoor), and a carriage and horse, amounts to about Rs.80 per mensem.

The kinds of food used will be hereafter noticed. The bazar bill for butcher-meat, groceries, etc., generally amounts to Rs.25. Rs.10 are spent on grain, Rs.5 on oil, Rs.5 on ghee, Rs.4 on fuel,

Rs.30 for water, and Rs.25 to Rs.30 on kât,—the total expenditure for food (including kât) averaging Rs.100 per mensem.

A description of the clothing worn will be hereafter given, and it is difficult to estimate the amount expended on this account; probably Rs.10 to Rs.15 per mensem would be sufficient under ordinary circumstances.

The ornaments worn are described elsewhere, and their value depends upon the wealth of the individual.

Two or three rupees a month are spent on charity.

Middling.—In this class are included traders, artisans, and other persons in comfortable circumstances, who spend about Rs.30 to Rs.40 per mensem. It is considered a point of honour to possess a house which costs from Rs.300 to Rs.500, and is generally mortgaged. It consists of two rooms, and an open court-yard. The furniture comprises one or two small carpets, two or three boxes, common cots, and a hookah. One servant is kept, generally a boy or girl, who receives Rs.2 or Rs:3 per mensem, with food.

Each family possesses two or three milch-goats; bazar expenses amount to from Rs.10 to Rs.15; grain, oil, ghee, salt, etc., cost from Rs.15 to Rs.20; water, Rs.3 to Rs.4; clothes, from Rs.3 to Rs.5 per mensem.

This class generally possess ornaments to the value of Rs.100 and upwards.

A rupee and upwards is expended on charity.

Labouring.—The permanent resident labouring class expend from Rs.7 to Rs.12 per mensem. They hire a house, at a daily rent of from $3\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ annas, which contains one room and a court-yard. Their furniture consists of two common cots, one or two boxes, one or two copper and several earthen cooking-pots. They keep no servants. The bazar expenses amount to about Rs.3; grain, oil, ghee, and relishes, Rs.5; water, R.1 to Rs.2; clothes, R.1 per mensem. They usually possess ornaments to the value of Rs.40 or Rs.50.

There are also a considerable number of labourers who come to Aden in search of employment. They are invariably single men, and they expend about Rs.6 or Rs.7 per mensem on their subsistence. They have no houses, sleeping in coffee-shops, and on the highways and byways. Sometimes eight or ten club together, and hire a small house at a low daily rent. They take their meals in the Mokhbâzah or eating-house, and after a residence of about a year they return to their native country with their savings, reappearing again when they are spent.

Meals.—Breakfast is taken about 6 A.M., and comprises, in the wealthy and middling classes, tea, coffee, milk, and bread; in the labouring, bread and water. Dinner is eaten at noon; the wealthier partaking of bread, ghee, dates, and baked meat; the poorer of bread, ghee, fish, or meat. Supper is taken at 7 P.M., and consists of meat, rice, fish, etc., according to circumstances. Labourers work from 6 to 4. All go to rest before 10 P.M.

Expenditure (Extraordinary).—The following exhibits the extraordinary expenditure incurred by each class :[1]—

	Wealthy.	Middling.	Labouring.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
Birth,	200 to 300	14 to 16	4 to 8
Circumcision,	200	20 to 30	4 to 8
Puberty,[2]	100	20 to 40	4 to 8
Betrothal,	100	5 to 10	3 to 5
Marriage of a son,	1000	1 to 300	10 to 40
Marriage of a daughter,	700 to 1000	100	10
Pregnancy,	200	40	10
Death,	150 to 500	15	6

AFRICANS.—There are three classes of Somalis who frequent the Settlement :—(*a.*) merchants who come to trade; (*b.*) men who come to seek their livelihood; (*c.*) children abandoned by their parents.

(*a.*) *Merchants.*—These are generally members of the Habr Awal tribe. They bring from Harrar and the Galla country, coffee, saffron (bastard), tusks, and feathers, taking away in return zinc, brass, broad cloth, and piece goods. They remain in Aden for about twenty days at a time during the trading season, which lasts about nine months,[3] making four trips. During their residence they hire a house, and are accompanied by their own domestics. Somalis of the Habr Gerhajis tribe arrive from Ogadain with feathers, myrrh, gum, sheep, cattle, and ghee, carrying away in exchange piece goods; they also make four trips in the season; they remain for less than a month, and during their stay reside with fellow-tribesmen, taking their meals in the mokhbâzah or eating-house. Somalis of the Habr Tuljaala and Dhulbanta tribes bring similar articles

[1] See *post*, Domestic Ceremonies, p. 48.

[2] No particular ceremony takes place beyond a dinner.

[3] August to April.

from Ogadain, and trade in the same manner. The Mijjertayn and Warsangli tribes arrive from Ras Hafun, Bunder Morayah, and Las Gori, etc., with frankincense and feathers, etc., taking away in return cotton-piece goods and jowarí. They also live with their friends, and take their meals at the mokhbâzah. These latter tribes only make two trips in the season.

(*b.*) *Men who come to seek their livelihood.*—These are of all tribes; the Mijjertayn and Warsangli contribute but few. On arrival, as they are usually ignorant of any language but their own, they work as coal and cargo coolies, under muccadums of their own tribe. When a year's residence has rendered them fairly proficient in Arabic, Hindustani, and English, they take employment as indoor and outdoor domestic servants, boat-boys, etc. Many work as punkah coolies in the hot months; the idly disposed prey on their friends, and shirk labour of any kind. Some are employed as policemen, and they make very fair detectives. When enough money has been saved to enable them to start as traders, they purchase a few pieces of shirtings, with which they return to their native country, investing a portion in live stock, and living on the balance. When the latter is expended, they leave their cattle and sheep in charge of their relations, and return to Aden to gain more money. Some develop into merchants.

(*c.*) *Children abandoned by their Parents.*—The Somalis who come over in search of employment marry (as soon as they are able to afford it) a wife in Aden. When their migratory habits take them back to their own country, they either divorce or abandon their wives, who frequently are thus left either pregnant, or with one or two children on their hands. The husbands leave a small sum with the unfortunate women, which is soon expended, and the latter are forced to re-marry, or earn their own living. The male offspring of these marriages are generally abandoned by their mothers as soon as they are four or five years old. A relative sometimes takes charge of them in a desultory sort of way, but they are compelled to earn their own living by begging, stealing, working as servants, diving, steering boats, running errands for passengers, etc. These boys have generally been taught to trace their descent on the father's side for six or seven generations, with the object of enabling them to be identified, if required, by their parents or their tribesmen to assist in inter-tribal quarrels. Girls generally either remain with their mothers or some relative, working as female servants to Arabs, Indians, or Europeans. When of a marriageable

age, they are taken as wives by Somalis, and sometimes by Arabs or Indians.

Meals.—Somalis eat twice a day, at 9 A.M. and 6 P.M. They expend from 7 to 15 rupees on their food; those resident in Aden generally possess a mat-house in the Maala village. As will be noticed, their clothing, consisting of little, does not cost much, the price of a 'tobe' being about a dollar, and the garment lasting a year. Somalis generally possess ornaments to the value of 80 or 100 rupees; these, however, they are frequently obliged to sell.

Dankalis.[1]—The members of this tribe, who visit Aden, are mostly traders or boat-owners. They live, when in the Settlement, in the same manner as the Somalis, sleeping and messing in their boats. They come from Zaila and Tajurrah during the months of August, September, October, and November, bringing sheep, goats, hides and skins, mats and jowlees, ostrich eggs and feathers, and take away grain (jowari), black cotton cloth, broad cloth, iron and brass. They remain about fifteen days, returning in the same boat that they have arrived in. The Dankalis make three or four trips in the season. They are never accompanied by their families, but an occasional woman finds her way to Aden, *via* Mokha. Their dress consists of the Arab kilt and the tobe; the women dress like Somalis; but few Dankalis are permanent residents in Aden.

Abyssinians and Natives of Massowa and Sowakin are occasional visitors. They live according to their own customs.

MORALS.—In conclusion, it remains only to be noticed that the morality of the inhabitants of Aden is not of a high order. This is the natural consequence of the incessant absence of Arab and Somali husbands on trading expeditions. The Indians very frequently bring no wives when they come to Aden, and cannot afford the expense of marriage with a virgin; they consequently take up with *divorcées*, and the perpetual change of husbands, combined with the natural aptitude for intrigue possessed by Arab and Somali women, lead to frequent liaisons on the part of the fair sex.

DRESS.—*Arabs.*—The Arabs of Aden have adopted the dress of the people inhabiting the Lahej district. This consists, in the male sex, *Firstly*, of a turban (doosmal) of Surat manufacture, composed, in the case of the wealthy, of silk, but more generally of cotton. It is rolled jauntily round the head, with a slight cock over one ear, and is worn well on the back of the head and low down on the

[1] See Part V.—Other African tribes, p. 159.

neck ; an end is left hanging down the back ; sometimes a skull-cap is worn under this turban.

Secondly.—A loose jacket (shaiah), reaching to the hips, made of white or dyed cotton, and sometimes of broad cloth, which is fastened down the front with four or more buttons.

Thirdly.—A sort of kilt (maawiz) made of cotton, with a white coloured border, formerly imported from Zebîd,[1] but now made more cheaply at Surat. This kilt is wound round the loins, ending generally on the right side, and reaching a few inches above the knee ; it is kept firm in its place by a waistband (maajiz) made of cotton thread, woven into a parti-coloured pattern.

Fourthly.—Over the left shoulder is hung a sort of scarf (radîf), made of cotton, sometimes of Surat, and occasionally of Madras manufacture. When anything has to be carried, such as money, provisions, etc., it is placed in the scarf and slung over the shoulder; when active exertion is necessary it is wound round the loins as a waistband.

Fifthly.—Sandals (madâs) are worn of various patterns, and are imported from Hodaida and Singapore ; a very indifferent kind is manufactured in Aden. These sandals consist of a thick leather sole, shaped like the human foot ; from this springs a strong leathern strip at the spot where the junction of the big toe falls ; on reaching the centre of the instep, this strap passes down on each side of the foot to the sole. Under the two side arms of the strap above referred to, a band about an inch and a half wide passes completely over the foot ; at the junction of this band with the sole there is a sort of wing of leather to protect the side of the foot.

Females of the same class wear a single shirt-like garment (thobe) of cotton or silk, girdled with a green leather belt (nissaa) ; they have a bright red or black shawl (makramah), also of cotton or silk, over the head, covering half the face[2] when out of doors. A small handkerchief, generally of silk, binds the head tightly, concealing the hair, which is plaited in a succession of small queues well greased. These are periodically opened for a few days, producing the effect of the modern chignon. Women generally tattoo their foreheads, cheeks, lips, chin, throat, chest, upper part of the neck, and hands and feet, with a composition made of the soot of frankincense mingled with oil. Both sexes are much addicted to scenting themselves and their houses with ambergris, sandalwood, myrrh, frankincense, etc.

[1] Near Mokha. [2] In Aden itself a veil completely conceals the features.

The women wear ornaments of gold and silver.[1]

The Arabs of Mokha, Hodaida, Jiddah, Muskât, Makalla, and Shehr, all wear the style of dress peculiar to their several districts, which it would be tedious and out of place here to describe.[2]

Somalis.[3]—The men wear a single white garment (tobe) of cotton, about thirty inches wide and three to four yards long, which is simply folded round the body, an end being brought occasionally over the head or the shoulder. This cloth is not secured in any way, being retained in its place by the wearer's hands, and accordingly presents the appearance of always being about to fall off, as it occasionally does, shocking the modesty of beholders; but in Aden such little accidents lead to fine when too frequently repeated, and consequently many wear also the Arab kilt. The head is kept bare, except among the more wealthy, and when not shaved or covered with curly locks, or resembling a mop, is plastered tightly all over with a mixture of white earth or lime, which when washed off makes the hair, after careful combing, crisp and frizzy.[4] Many Somalis dress like Arabs, Indians, and even Europeans.

Married women dress their hair in a different manner from the unmarried, covering the head with a blue network handkerchief, of which the ends hang down the neck. Girls before marriage part their hair in the middle, and twist it into a number of thin plaits. On feast-days flowers are worn, and a Somali girl on these occasions resembles the pantaloon of the Christmas pantomime.

The women wear a single garment like that of the men, but it is put on differently, being fastened round the waist like a petticoat, with a number of folds behind; one end is then brought up across the left or right shoulder, and a lappet is left, which can be brought over the head like a hood. The breeze is apt to discompose this drapery, and girls before marriage wear a piece of string round the waist to prevent the upper portion of their robe from being occasionally indecorous. Married women are not so particular. The petticoat portion is open in front, and very frequently the leg is exposed far above the knee.

For a description of the ornaments see under that head.

Jews.—Round the waist is fastened the kilt (fotah) so common

[1] See under 'Ornaments,' p. 58.

[2] For description of these see Travels of Burckhardt, Niebuhr, Welsted, and Palgrave.

[3] See Burton's *First Footsteps in Eastern Africa* for a more complete account of the Somali dress.

[4] Some wear crimson sheepskin wigs.

among the Arabs, with a striped border; this garment is allowed to reach nearly to the feet. On the upper part of the body a long shirt (khamis) is worn next the skin, reaching over the kilt to the knees, and made of white cotton; over this goes a sort of small cotton sheet (thalith), with a hole in it, through which the head passes, leaving the two ends hanging down before and behind, as low as the hips. Above this is sometimes worn a waistcoat (sidairiah), generally of silk, and embroidered at the pockets and edges. Lastly, over all comes a sort of robe or gabardine, made of cotton, reaching to the knee. In the hand, or over the shoulder, is carried the 'mandîl,' of cotton or light semi-transparent silk; this garment is usually 2½ yards long by 1½ broad; at each end there is a fringe, and at each of the four corners is sewed a piece of coloured silk, generally green, about 3 inches square; in the centre of this there is a sewed eyelet, through which four silken cords pass, which are knotted at the distance of the eyelet from the edge of the 'mandîl,' and the eight ends are allowed to droop 11 inches long. The 'mandîl' is worn at Divine worship over the head like a veil, but not hiding the face. During the time prayers are being repeated the four corners are held in both hands by the pendent strings; these are at the conclusion of each supplication raised first to the right, and then to the left eye, then kissed: this is done at least eight times. The head is shaved every Friday, except two scanty curls, one on each side of the forehead, and a sort of skull-cap of Surat-work is worn. Sandals, similar to those used by the Arabs, are put on when proceeding out of doors.

Women wear trousers[1] (sarwal) of cotton or silk, tight at the ankle. Next, a garment resembling a sleeveless shirt, which reaches nearly to the ground, of some striped material. Round the head is bound a 'masr' or handkerchief of coloured cotton or silk, completely hiding the hair, which it is not respectable to allow to be seen. Over this handkerchief is thrown a 'makramah,' or sort of veil, similar to that worn by Arab women.

The Jews of Aden are not, as a rule, very cleanly in their habits, only washing and changing their clothes once a week.

Other Races. — Indians and other races wear their national costumes.

Food.—It is only necessary here to notice the various articles of food used by each class of the eastern portion of the population.

Europeans live as in India.

[1] Not invariably worn.

Arabs.—The better class of Arabs subsist on wheaten bread (hand-made), ghee, honey, rice, and meat, rarely using fish and vegetables.

The lower classes use bread made of jowaree, dates, fish, rice, and a kind of soup made of 'maithee'[1] seeds, called 'holbah;' they rarely eat meat.

Negroes subsist on the same food as Arabs.

As a beverage the husks of the coffee-berry are decocted and flavoured with ginger, and sometimes cardamoms. This coffee is drunk night and day in considerable quantities, and there are a number of coffee-shops in the Settlement where it is sold to all comers.

The Arabs do not use any stimulants except tobacco and kât.[2] Playfair, on the authority of an old Arab writer of the sixteenth century, mentions that formerly a decoction of kât was used in Aden, but was superseded by coffee about 1420-30.[3] Some of the upper classes use coffee made of the berry.

It is only those Arabs who have become debauched by contact with Europeans who drink spirits; drunkenness is not common among them. Nearly all smoke and chew tobacco.

Somalis.—The food of Somalis resembles that of Arabs, but they do not eat fish or 'holbah.' They prefer half-baked meat with boiled rice, and use an immoderate amount of ghee. Animal food and milk are their favourite food when at home; but meat is too expensive in Aden to be frequently indulged in. Somalis drink coffee made of husks, similar to the beverage used by the Arabs. Many Somalis are addicted to the use of tobacco,[4] which they chew in the form of a powder, but few smoke, and none ever drink any kind of intoxicating liquor. An inebriated male Somali has, it is believed, never been heard of, but Somali women who have taken to prostitution drink freely.

Jews.—The people of this race live almost entirely on jowarî, bread, dates, and fish, the latter forming their principal article of diet. Jews do not drink much coffee; they are much addicted, however, to strong waters, and themselves distil from dates a kind of spirit,[5] of which they partake in large quantities. Many male

[1] Fenugreek.

[2] Catha Edulis (Forsk.) See page 139 for a description of this drug.

[3] Playfair's *History of Yemen*, p. 20.

[4] Surat tobacco, made into a quid called 'takhzînah.'

[5] See Manufactures and Industries, Part III., p. 82.

Jews have a very dissipated appearance, probably from the effects of over-indulgence in spirituous liquors.

Indians.—The natives of India eat precisely the same kind of food in Aden, when attainable, as they would if at home. Hindus find considerable difficulty in obtaining a sufficiency of vegetables.

DOMESTIC CEREMONIES.—The domestic ceremonies observed by the *Arabs* will be first noticed; they consist of those practised on the occasions of birth, circumcision, marriage, and death.

N.B.—The ceremonies hereafter described are those which take place in ordinary middle-class families; riches or poverty enhance or curtail the expense and ceremony.

Birth.—On the birth of a child a goat is sacrificed near the infant, and the flesh is distributed to relations and neighbours. On the seventh night after birth the child receives its name, either from the parents, or a Moolah, or a relation. The 'Idthan,' or summons to prayer, is whispered in the infantile ears. Relatives and neighbours are summoned, and an empty dish is placed in the centre of the assemblage, into which each person present casts a coin, generally a rupee; this money is given to the *accoucheuse* who has attended the mother. The guests are then regaled; rose-water, incense, and other scents are handed round, and the company disperse.

Circumcision.—On the day of the ceremony, which usually takes place about the seventh, tenth, or twentieth day after birth, friends and relations are called together, and a barber performs the operation, and applies the usual remedies. A dish, as in marriages, is placed in the centre of the room for gratuitous contributions, which are on this occasion appropriated by the barber. After about a week the parents give an entertainment to friends and relatives; a religious session is held at night, when hymns are sung and much kât[1] is consumed.

Marriage.—When an Arab wishes to betroth his son, he sends a messenger on his behalf to the house of the parents of the selected damsel. If an understanding has been come to, the boy's father or nearest relative goes to the girl's father, and settles with him the 'Dafa,' which is usually from $50 upwards.[2] After a few days he returns, accompanied by friends and relations to the number of about fifty or sixty, in whose presence he delivers the 'Dafa' to the girl's father; coffee, scents, and sweetmeats are then distributed to the assembly, after which they all take their leave.

[1] See above.

[2] 1 $=2½ rupees.

In about a week the marriage takes place; the boy's father erects a covered shed or 'makhdarah' in front of his house, and sends written invitations to his friends and relatives to attend the 'Makil'[1] and 'Samrah.'[2] These continue for a day and a night; the following morning the bridegroom is bathed with henna or 'mahdi,' and is clad in rich garments. He wears a sword and 'jambiâh' or dagger. The plate is again present, and is filled by the company, the barber and musicians receiving the amount collected. The Kazi and the girl's father are then summoned; the former asks the latter and the bridegroom if they both consent to the marriage; on their replying in the affirmative, the girl's father settles the amount of the 'mahr' or dowry, usually $60, more or less, with the bridegroom; the Kazi then joins their hands and utters some 'suras' (verses) from the Koran, registers the marriage in the 'daftar' or record, and takes his departure after receiving his fee, generally eight annas to one rupee. The same morning fifty to a hundred men proceed to Maala Bunder, or the Barrier Gate, and bring into Aden with pomp and ceremony a camel-load or more of kât,[3] which has arrived for the bridegroom's father. The camels bearing the kât are adorned with silver ornaments, and the kât itself is covered with an embroidered cloth; the men accompanying the cavalcade sing, beat drums, and burn incense up to the bridegroom's house, where the camel-drivers receive a present of rich apparel. The camels are unloaded, and the kât is taken into the shed before mentioned with great ceremony.[4] As soon as the kât is fairly installed in the marriage shed, the guests begin to arrive, each bearing kât (to the value of from one to two dollars), tobacco, and water-vessels, for his own use. This kât, etc., is in addition to what is provided by the bridegroom's father. The day is passed is eating kât, singing hymns, smoking, and burning incense; in the evening supper is served, after which all retire to their houses. After nightfall they again return, each person bearing three or four long wax-candles, which being lighted he places near himself. The guests pass the night in the same manner as the day, reclining on their sides on

[1] Makil—Day conversazione.

[2] Samrah—Night do.

[3] See under Food.

[4] The following reason is given for the veneration which kât receives on these occasions:—It is said that devout and religious-minded men in Yemen have always found kât of special service in producing wakefulness at night when they consider adoration of the Almighty especially acceptable.

small low cots or chairs, the head resting on the arm, which is supported by a pillow, and the snake-like tube of the hookah in their mouths. These pipes are ranged in front, on long stools, with candles burning in their midst; the water-jugs rest on long brass stands; pots of flowering and other shrubs are ranged amongst the hookahs; the bridegroom sits on a dais about eight or nine feet high, with a Moollah by his side. All the persons present occasionally join together in song; and the music, and the lights, and the gay dresses, and the attitudes of the actors, combined, present a spectacle worthy of the Arabian Nights' Entertainments. In the harem the women amuse themselves singing, dancing, and feasting, at the cost of the bridegroom's father. All the guests in the marriage-shed before leaving, present the bridegroom with one or two dollars, going up the ladder to the dais to do so, and placing the money in his hands; the party breaks up about dawn.

The next day the bridegroom, accompanied by his friends and relations, and preceded by musicians playing on drums and other musical instruments, goes at nightfall to the bride's residence; those who accompany him remain outside, and are regaled with coffee, sprinkled with rose-water, and scented with incense. The bridegroom is taken inside and seated by his bride on a couch; the latter's face is covered with a veil; rose-water is then sprinkled freely on the face of the bridegroom, and one of his female relations decorates his forehead with a row of gold or silver coins, the pieces being kept in their places by wetting the side next the skin with rose-water. Presently the coins fall; they are then taken up and placed on one side. Another of the women present repeats the ceremony, which continues as long as any female is found willing and wealthy enough to take advantage of the privilege each woman possesses of performing it three times. The large sum of money thus collected is distributed amongst the barbers, hired singers, musicians, and drummers. The bridegroom then rises, and taking the hand of the bride leads her to the door, where he leaves her with his mother and the other women, who seat her in a carriage, in front of which the bridegroom with some thirty companions proceeds to his father-in-law's house, where they are all hospitably entertained. Female relatives of the bridegroom continue for four days in his house enjoying themselves, singing, listening to music, etc.

Marriages with widows or *divorcées* are not attended with any beyond the religious ceremony and perhaps a small 'samrah' or

night conversazione. The 'Dafa' is usually half what is given on the occasion of marriage with a virgin.

Deaths.—As soon as the breath leaves the body, a Moollah or priest is called, who bathes the corpse, which is then wrapped in a white shroud and covered with a mat. The body is placed on a cot, which is carried to the nearest mosque by the relatives or friends of the deceased. Prayers are there offered up and blessings invoked on the dead; the corpse is then carried to the graveyard, where it is at once buried. Some incense is burnt, and the Moollah utters the requisite verses from the Koran; bread, dates, and fruit are distributed by one of the relations of the deceased to the poor who may be present, after which all return home. For three days all relatives and friends attend one of the Musjids nightly, and read the Koran for two or three hours, the deceased's family paying the expense of illuminating the house of prayer, and for light refreshments, such as sweetmeats and coffee, which are given to those who attend these readings. On the fourth day the family give an entertainment according to their means. Mourning continues for four days more, after which all betake themselves to their respective avocations. All female relatives and neighbours visit the women of deceased's household to condole with them for three days after the death.

Somalis.—No particular ceremony is observed by Somalis on the occasion of birth and circumcision; the few that possess sufficient wealth to indulge in such luxuries imitate the Arabs.

Circumcision.—This rite amongst the Somalis does not take place until the seventh or eighth year. A very singular custom prevails amongst the Somal—'Hac in gente, ad castitatem servandam, hujusmodi mos est. Puellarum vulvas filo ex corio confecto constringunt; has, cum connubiale jugum ferre poterint, magno cum apparatu solvunt.'[1]

Marriage.—As amongst more civilised nations, marriages usually take place from mutual inclination. When a man is satisfied regarding the temper and qualifications of a girl, he addresses the elders of her family, who betroth him to the chosen damsel. Three or four members of the would-be Benedict's family visit the girl's relations and settle the amount of the 'Dafa'[2] (which is seldom more than $30), as amongst Arabs. After a year's probation five or ten of the man's relations go to the girl's parents and present the

[1] Female circumcision is also practised as among the Abyssinians (Rigby).

[2] See *ante*.

'Dafa;' they are hospitably entertained and treated. A few days afterwards the religious ceremony or 'Akd' is performed by the Kazi in the same manner as at Arab weddings. The bridegroom now goes to live with his father-in-law for seven days, during which dancing is kept up with great spirit in front of the bride's house. On the seventh day the guests are entertained by the girl's father, and the bridegroom is permitted access to the bride. During the ceremony the bridegroom wears his arms. Neither he nor his family are put to any expense beyond the 'Dafa;' he lives with his father-in-law about a week, after which he takes the bride to his own house.

No ceremony beyond the religious one is observed in second marriages; widows frequently marry their deceased husband's nearest relative.

Deaths.—The ceremonies observed by the Somalis on the occasion of the decease of a friend or relative do not materially differ from those practised by the Arabs, except that the 'Daras' or reading is held in the house of the deceased in place of the Musjid, and the mourning continues only two days.

Jews.—The following ceremonies are observed by the Jews:—

Birth.—As soon as a child is born a goat is slaughtered under the couch of the mother, and the flesh is distributed with wet dates to the relatives and friends. On the seventh night some fifty threads of twist are brought, a head of garlic is threaded on each, and these are divided amongst relations and neighbours, who bind them to the arms of their children. On the same day seven black lines are drawn on each door of the house in which the child is born, and three eggs are broken and thrown away, in the belief that the above ceremonies will prevent the devil troubling the child or its mother.

The infant, if a girl, is named the same night (seventh); no entertainment takes place.

If however the child be a boy it is at once circumcised by the head priest (called Mori or Rabbi), no one else being allowed to perform this ceremony, which takes place in the presence of an assembly of men; at the same time the child is named by the priest, who holds a glass full of wine in his hand and utters the necessary form of prayer for the child's recovery from the effects of circumcision, which at so early an age frequently proves fatal to weakly infants. It is incumbent the ceremony should take place on the eighth day. Soon after the naming a dinner is given by the boy's father.

Marriage Ceremony.—The preliminary arrangements are settled by the female relatives, after which the father of the proposed bridegroom sends two persons to the girl's parents to obtain confirmation of the betrothal. These envoys are received hospitably, and, if all goes well, a few days afterwards two females on the part of the bridegroom proceed to the bride's house and present her with half a guinea and one dollar. A few months after the marriage ceremony commences, and lasts for fourteen days. On three or four days 'Samrah,' or evening meetings are held in the bridegroom's house, when coffee and wine are handed round; hymns are also sung on these occasions. Each party give two or three entertainments to friends and relations. On the first day of the marriage a boy or girl is despatched to the bride's house with the 'Dafa,' or preliminary offering, which consists of clothes and ornaments. The same day the bridegroom's head is anointed, and he is then bathed with henna and dressed up in rich apparel. Friends and relations are called together, and the dish for voluntary offerings is passed round. The contributions seldom exceed four annas from each person, and are given to the barber. An entertainment is held on the tenth day by the bride's father, when the bridegroom, accompanied by a priest and ten or twenty companions, proceeds to the bride's father's house, where a heifer covered with rich housing and decorated with silver ornaments is brought before the assembly. The priest slaughters the animal, holding the hand of the bridegroom, who previously touches the knife. The 'Akd' or marriage settlement is effected during the first week of the ceremony, usually on a Monday night, at the bridegroom's house, where the priest and the bridegroom sit side by side facing the bride's father and the relations of both contracting parties. The priest then produces a written certificate of marriage, which has been previously prepared. He presents the document, holding in his hand a glass filled with wine, both of which the bridegroom takes, and after drinking the wine returns the bond to the priest; the latter then reads it aloud. After this the writing is kissed once by all present, and two of the guests sign it as witnesses. The remainder of the day is passed in singing hymns and drinking coffee, etc., until two A.M., when the priest and bridegroom accompanied by ten friends proceed to the bride's house. The bride is concealed by a screen, behind which the priest takes the bridegroom, and the latter presents the bride with the written certificate, and causes her to drink a glass of wine which he hands her; the bridegroom and bride reciprocally inquire one

another's names. The witnesses to the writing are called, and the bride is permitted to see them and hear them testify to their signatures with their own lips; the bridegroom then presents another glass of wine to the bride, which she drinks. The marriage certificate is retained by the bride as long as she lives. It is merely a declaration or certificate of marriage. The dower is usually sixteen dollars. On the following Friday the bridegroom goes to the synagogue, and after prayers proceeds to his father-in-law's house accompanied by a few friends; they are hospitably received, and after a short session all depart except the bridegroom, who from that time remains in his father-in-law's house for life, provided the latter is willing and able to pay the young couple's expenses, otherwise the bridegroom resides for a short time only, returning with his bride to his father's house.

Deaths.—As soon as a male Jew dies the body is bathed, wrapped in a winding-sheet, and placed on a cot, which is carried to the synagogue, where prayers are offered up. The corpse is then taken to the cemetery and interred. During the latter operation the priest who accompanies the procession uses some religious form of words, and all then return home. Soon after death the oldest male of the deceased's family rends his upper garment and wears it torn for seven days as a sign of mourning. The dead bodies of females and children under the age of one month are not taken to the synagogue, but are carried direct to the cemetery. Three days after death a light is burnt under the bedstead on which the deceased expired. On the third day the person engaged for the purpose removes this light, which consists of a small earthen vessel with oil and a wick; he also takes away a water-jug and a small drinking cup. These he breaks over the grave of the deceased. For seven days visits of condolence are made, and on the last day of mourning coffee is handed round. Jewish women visit the graves of relatives.

Other Races.—Indians follow the custom of their own country in carrying out domestic ceremonies, but of course those who marry Arab women are obliged to a certain extent to introduce modifications suitable to the taste of the bride's family. Seedees follow Arabs in a humble way. Hindus seldom if ever bring their families to Aden.

RELIGION.—The great majority of the inhabitants of Aden are Mahomedans, among whom are town and country Arabs, Somalis, Seedees, Persians, Indians, including Mehmons, Borahs, Khojas, Shaikhs, Kokanîs, Pathans, etc.

The Persians, Borahs, Khojahs, and a few other Indian sects are Shiahs. The Arabs of Yemen, from the districts north of Taizz, Jibla, and Ibb, are Zaidîs (Shiahs); the remainder of the Arabs that visit Aden are Sunnees, as are also the Somalis, Seedees, and other African tribes. Somalis, Arabs, and other African tribes are Shaffai Muslims. The Indians, Egyptians, and Turks are Hanafi Muslims.

Bigotry and fanaticism are confined to the lower and uneducated classes; it is more especially apparent in the Somalis and Arabs of the Zaidî sect. There are a few Wahabîs, probably about a hundred; they are all Indians, and most of them menial servants, such as tailors, barbers, peons, butlers, and a few uninfluential traders and contractors.

The feeling of the Mahomedan population of Aden and the neighbouring districts of Arabia and the Dankali and Somali coasts is, on the surface at least, friendly to the English from a religious point of view; toleration being appreciated, if not practised, by Muslims.

The French are considered hasty and despotic; the Turks and Egyptians are regarded with aversion up to a certain point (although co-religionists), as will be presently noticed.

Turkish rule is hated on account of the misgovernment and oppression practised by the provincial governors, yet the Turks as a nation are sympathised with by reason of the religious tie—the idea being that it is necessary for Mahomedanism that there should be one great ruling Muslim power, and assistance would no doubt be rendered towards the upholding of the representative of that power, if threatened by unbelievers. Russians are looked upon with dislike and scorn, they being considered the bitterest enemies of Islam. As to other European powers, their very names, until recently, were unknown. The Portuguese are entirely forgotten.

All classes of Muslims in Aden are especially attentive to their devotions, and pray the full five times per diem. The double row of worshippers, consisting of perhaps fifty to a hundred men, standing in some open space and guided in their several genuflexions and prostrations by an Imam, who is placed a few paces in front, at once strikes the attention of strangers. On Fridays in some of the Musjids a 'khutbah' or sermon is delivered by the Moollahs and a prayer is entreated for the Sultan of Turkey as the 'Amir Al Mominain Khalifah Russool Allah, wa Khadim al Harâmain as Sharîfain,' that is, The Commander of the Faithful, the Khalif of the Prophet of God, the Servant of the two Holy Sanctuaries.

Indian servants, who in their native country seldom say a prayer, are in Aden specially attentive to their devotions. The Mahomedans in the military service do not, however, with few exceptions, increase their outward religious observances.

It is unnecessary here to refer to the various forms of Hindu worship which are practised by its votaries in Aden, with perhaps less attention than when at home. There are five temples in the Settlement.

The Jews of Aden bear a special reputation for attention to outward religious observance. There is only one synagogue in the Settlement. No work is ever done by a Jew in Aden after twelve noon on Friday until Sunday morning. They do not evidently consider the law of Moses forbids the use of intoxicating drinks.

A somewhat serious religious riot took place in 1873 between the Jews and Mahomedans, which arose out of a trivial quarrel between two individuals, one of each race, and it might have led to serious consequences had it not been speedily repressed by the authorities, who interfered for the protection of the Jews.

GAMES AND AMUSEMENTS.—The various amusements of the Arabs and Somalis are none of a very violent character, as might be judged from the nature of the people themselves. Certainly the dancing, which will be hereafter described, requires considerable physical exertion, but it is only indulged in by especially energetic individuals.

The following games[1] are pretty generally known and played by grown-up people:—(*a.*) Kawâia, (*b.*) Bangâla, (*c.*) Tâb, (*d.*) Damah, (*e.*) Sâri, (*f.*) Sharah, (*g.*) Batal, (*h.*) Bârah, (*k.*) Safa.

An account of the games played by the Somalis will be found in Burton's *First Footsteps in Eastern Africa*, pages 41, 42, edition of 1856.

(*a.*) *Kawâia.*—Two rows of holes are made parallel to each other, thus—

1	2	3	4	5	6
O	O	O	O	O	O
7	8	9	10	11	12
O	O	O	O	O	O

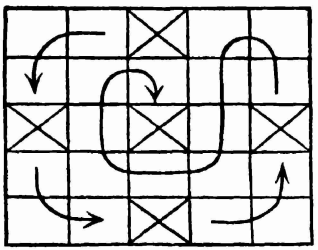
In each hole are placed four date-stones, and the game (which requires two players) then commences by one taking up four stones out of any hole and passing round as shown above, depositing one

[1] Children's games are the same as in India,—kites, marbles, hockey, hop-scotch, etc.

stone in every hole passed until all the stones in the hand are exhausted; the player then takes up all the stones in the hole next the one he deposited the last stone in, and continues until an empty hole is come to, when he appropriates all the stones in the hole beyond the empty one, and the other player takes his turn, commencing where his adversary left off, and so on until all the stones are finished, when the player who has the greater number wins, the loser being called 'a donkey.'

(*b.*) *Bangâla* is a similar game played with shells (cowries), the loser standing the winner a cup of coffee.

(*c.*) *Tâb.*—This game is played as follows:—A diagram is drawn on the ground, containing twenty-five squares, thus—



Supposing there to be four players, each starts from his own spot, the object being to gain the centre first. This is done by means of shells or counters and four pieces of cane (instead of dice), each about six inches long, which are shaken in the hand and thrown down; according to their position after falling, their value is calculated; for instance, if a piece lie with the cut side up it counts one; if reversed, nothing, unless all fall the same way, when eight are counted. The game is too intricate to describe here; it resembles backgammon.

(*d.*) *Damah.*—The Indian game of draughts.

(*e.*) *Sâri.*—This game is a sort of prisoner's base; eight go in and eight go out, the former remaining round a stone on the watch against being inadvertently touched by the outside, who are also liable to be touched by the inside when they come within eight paces of the central stone; the person touched, on whichever side, is considered dead, that is, he may not play any more until next turn.

(*f.*) *Sharah* is a sort of dance by two persons at a time, who advance and retreat four or five paces with sundry gesticulations until tired, when they give the persons making the music a few pice, and other two take their turn to dance. The spectators are also expected to encourage the musicians with a small present. The game is also played by women inside their harems.

(*g.*) *Batal.*—This resembles the last-mentioned sport, except that it is danced by one man and one woman.[1] The music quickens as the dance progresses, and the couple finally whirl round and round until giddy and exhausted.

(*h.*) *Bârah* resembles 'Sharah,' except that it is danced only on occasions of ceremony, and the performers have in their hands drawn swords, daggers, or matchlocks, which they whirl wildly about.

(*k.*) *Safa.*—Men and women stand round in a circle alternately; in the centre the musicians sit playing a slow measure; one person gives out a line of poetry in a sort of monotone, and all the others take up the refrain, at the same time raising the hands in front of the face, palms together; the whole company then go on singing, bending and straightening the knees in time with the music until the signal is given to stop by some one who is tired clapping the hands together. This game is not played in public or mixed company, except by the lowest classes.

Besides the numerous Mahomedan feast-days, another occasion of amusement for the people of all classes is the Ziârah or quasi-pilgrimage to some saint's tomb, an account of which will be found hereafter.

ORNAMENTS.—The following list of ornaments worn by the different races who frequent or reside in Aden has no pretensions to exhaustiveness, and the articles vary so much in shape, even when bearing the same name, that it is possible some may not be immediately identified from the descriptions given.

Arabs wear:—1. Nose-rings; 2. Ear-rings; 3. Necklets; 4. Armlets; 5. Wristlets; 6. Finger-rings; 7. Cinctures; 8. Anklets; 9. Toe-rings; and 10. Other ornaments.

1. *Nose-rings.*—'Khusfa,' a gold ring, upwards of half an inch in diameter; usually a gold wire bent circular, the ends pointed and left open; frequently jewelled with three or four pearls. It is worn through either nostril; the average price is six rupees.

'Bulakh.'—A flat gold crescent, chased and stamped, studded with pearls, having a fringe of pearls on the outside; it is worn suspended from the central membrane of the nose by a semicircular wire which joins the horns of the crescent. The average cost is twelve rupees.

2. *Ear-rings.*—'Tankîsa' exactly resembles the 'Khusfa,' but is one inch in diameter, and is frequently bound with gold wire half

[1] Invariably a prostitute.

its circumference. Six of these rings are worn in the upper membrane of each ear. Value per set, 144 rupees; if made of silver, four rupees.

'Durar.'—Four or five balls of gold, their centre filled with composition, the top and bottom balls half an inch in diameter, those in the centre about quarter of an inch; all are threaded on a gold wire, and the intervals between the balls are occupied by one or two pearls. One ear-ring is worn in the lobe of each ear, and the set costs 42 rupees.

'Jumah.'—Half a gold sphere, half to quarter of an inch in diameter; centre filled with composition; exterior embossed; jewelled; with a fringe of pearls round the lower part. It is suspended from the centre of the convex surface by a ring. A set costs 48 rupees.

'Shalâshil.'—A kind of ear-ring of a variety of shapes, with a number of pendants. Value 20 rupees, and upwards, gold and jewelled; silver, 3 rupees.

3. *Necklets.*—'Muriah.'—A necklace of gold beads, sometimes plain, sometimes hexagonal; three-fourths of an inch in diameter; centre filled with composition, threaded on silk, and worn round the throat. Value 72 rupees. When of silver, 5 rupees.

'Kidaini.'—A gold necklace resembling Muriah, but having a large pendant of a variety of shapes, which is embossed and ornamented with filigree-work and jewels, and is seldom less than a square inch in size. Value 180 rupees.

'Balaah ma' as-Shams.'—A triple gold chain, having one or more false pearls between each link, which last are elongated; the pendant is a sort of locket about two inches in diameter, covered on the outside with filigree-work, and having a jewelled stud in the centre. The pendant hangs as low as the centre of the breast. The chain is called 'Balaah' and the pendant 'Shams.' Value 400 rupees.

'Amhar howâfiz ma' al-Kamr.'—A necklace of alternate coral and filigree gold beads, half an inch in diameter. At intervals twelve or more gold heart-shaped plates are attached by one end; the other having a few pearls pendant. On these plates is engraved some short religious inscription generally in praise of God. To this chain a flat filigree worked heart-shaped pendant with a jewelled stud in the centre is suspended. The chain is called 'Amhar Howafiz,' and the pendant 'Kamr.' Value 600 rupees.

'Labbah.'—A necklet consisting of three rows of gold fishes

joined together head and tail, and hanging tail downwards; each row is smaller than the one above it, the fish in the upper row being about three-fourths of an inch long, and in the lower half an inch or thereabouts, and thirty in number. Along the top runs a row of gold beads; from the tails of the bottom row of fishes hang small heart-shaped flat gold pendants. Value 180 rupees.

'Shakka.'—A necklace of gold coins, generally Turkish, sometimes Bohemian, varying in price according to the number and value of coins.

'Lazim.'—An open worked necklace, sometimes resembling network, sometimes chain mail, from half to one inch wide. Usually sewed on a silken band. Value 80 rupees and upwards.

'Hirz.'—A flat gold amulet of an oblong shape, usually two by three inches, containing verses of the Koran. It is worn suspended round the neck by a gold chain, and hanging as low as the centre of the breast. Value, with chain, 210 rupees and upwards. Silver, 13 rupees and upwards.

4. *Armlets*—worn above the elbow.

'Tafiat.'—A solid gold flat armlet, three-fourths of an inch wide, engraved and embossed. Value 120 rupees per pair. Silver, 13 rupees per pair.

'Hadud.'—Plain gold hollow circular armlets, three quarters of an inch in diameter. 150 rupees per pair. Silver, 12 rupees.

'Farud' resemble 'Hadud,' but are more elongated vertically. A row of bells is suspended from the lower side; this ornament is invariably made of silver. Value 50 rupees per pair.

'Zanud' resemble 'Hadud' in appearance and price.

5. *Wristlets.*—'Banâgri.'—Flat gold-chased bracelets, usually one inch wide; generally having irregular projections, quarter to half an inch high, resembling thorns, down the centre. They open and are closed with a jewelled stud. Value, per set, 150 rupees. Silver, 12 rupees.

'Shumaila.'—Chased gold or silver bracelets, half an inch in diameter, filled with composition. They are opened and closed with a pin. Value gold, 150 rupees per pair. Silver, 20 rupees per set.

6. *Finger-rings.*—'Khaitam.'—Seal and jewelled rings worn on the third and fourth fingers of each hand. Gold, 50 rupees. Silver, 4 rupees.

'Madwar.'—A plain or twisted ring of gold or silver used as a keeper to 'Khaitam.' Value, gold, 2½ rupees. Silver, 0/8 annas.

7. *Cinctures.*—'Barîm.'—A broad silver belt made of a succession of squares stamped with designs 2½ to 3 inches wide; on the lower side a number of balls in groups of three are suspended by chains; these tinkle when the wearer moves. Value 350 rupees.

8. *Anklets.*—'Jinghâni.'—Anklets of silver an inch broad, resembling chain mail, with bells suspended on the lower side; they open and fasten with a small screw. Value 35 rupees per pair.

'Hajjâla.'—Massive gold or silver anklets, three quarters of an inch in diameter; flat on the inside; filled with composition: they open and shut with a pin. Value, gold, 400 rupees. Silver, 30 rupees per pair.

9. *Toe-rings.*—'Mawâbil.'—Plain or embossed gold or silver rings, quarter of an inch in diameter. Worn on the second toe of each foot. Value, gold, 36 rupees. Silver, 2 rupees per pair.

10. *Other Ornaments.*—An ornament consisting of gold coins, suspended by silken cords which are woven in the hair and hang down the back, is called 'Shakka.' Arabs also wear ornaments similar to those used by the natives of India.

Jews.—Jewish women wear—1. Ear-rings; 2. Necklets; 3. Armlets; 4. Wristlets; 5. Finger-rings; 6. Anklets.

1. *Ear-rings.*—'Hilâk.'—Ear-rings of gold, with coins as pendants worn in the upper or the lower lobes of the ear. Value 40 rupees.

2. *Necklets.*—'Silsilah.'—Plain silver cable chain, worn hanging half way down the breast. Value 12 rupees.

3. *Armlets.*—'Hanishat.'—Armlets consisting of five or six oblong lockets of silver, threaded through three rings attached to the upper side by a silver chain, quarter of an inch in diameter. Value 35 rupees per pair.

'Adthaib' resemble Arab 'Farud' in appearance and value.

'Bazwandi.'—Silver bangles, quarter of an inch thick, having a number of various-shaped silver hollow pendants suspended from the lower side in groups of three; these tinkle when the wearer moves. Value 100 rupees per pair.

4. *Wristlets.*—'Amsak.'—Solid silver bracelets, cut hexagonally, half to three quarters of an inch in diameter, with ornamented knobs at the junction. Value 60 rupees per pair.

5. *Finger-rings.*—Same as Arabs.

6. *Anklets.*—Same as Arabs.

Some of the ornaments worn by the Arabs are also worn by the Jews.

Somalis wear—1. Ear-rings; 2. Necklets; 3. Armlets; and 4. Wristlets.

1. *Ear-rings*.—'Kurait.'—Silver bars, one and a half inch long, and quarter of an inch in diameter, with a ring at one end and a stud at the other. They are worn stuck in the upper part of the ear. Value, 2 rupees per pair.

'Hilâk.'—Ear-rings resembling large silver signet-rings, worn in the lower lobe of both ears; a double silver curb-chain connects these rings passing round the neck, the loose loops of the chain hanging over the shoulders in front. Value, about 10 rupees.

2. *Necklets*.—'Gilbah.'—A crescent-shaped necklace of silver, studded with circular bosses, and stamped with a variety of designs, having a succession of silver pendants in groups of three beads of silver; from the centre a large pendant hangs varying in shape; the ornament is about six inches from horn to horn of the crescent, and one inch wide by half an inch deep. It is suspended from the horns by a necklace, composed of alternate double rows of speckled beads, and circular rough lumps of amber of various sizes. There are also two silver balls, one on each side of the necklace, called 'Lozoh.' A row of irregular lumps of amber runs along the top of the crescent, and sometimes there are two or more crescents, one below the other. Value, 40 rupees and upwards.

3. *Armlets*.—'Zanud.'—The same as the Arab.

4. *Wristlets*.—'Wakuf.'—Broad silver bracelets, resembling four flat bangles, each half an inch wide, joined together, stamped with designs. Value, 40 rupees per pair.

The men wear large lumps of amber, called 'Kahrab,' round the neck, strung on leather.

Other Races.—Indians wear the same ornaments as when at home, and all others the jewellery of their respective countries. Seedees follow Arabs.

PART III.

CHAPTER I.—SUPPLIES.

FOOD GRAINS.—The grains used as food in the Settlement are :—

(*a.*) Rice (Oryza sativa).
(*b.*) Jowarî (Sorghum vulgare).
(*c.*) Wheat (Triticum æstivum).
(*d.*) Bajrî (Paricum Miliaceum).
(*e.*) Pulse—
Toor (Cajanus Indicus).
Mussoor (Ervum Lens).
Moong (Phaseolus Mungo).
Dorud (Phaseolus radiatus).
(*f.*) Maize or Indian corn (Zea Mays).

Rice (*a.*)—Various sorts of rice are imported from Calcutta, Bombay, and Malabar. Those principally used are 'Ballum,' 'Daood Khan,' and table. The two former are more generally used by Arabs, Somalis, and natives of India; the third, which is of a better class, is consumed by Europeans. Rice is not indigenous in South Arabia, or the proximate parts of Africa, but it is largely consumed by all classes in both countries. It is prepared for eating by boiling.

Rice is very largely exported; it arrives in bags, weighing 1½ cwt. or two Indian maunds. The price averages from Rs.7 to Rs.9 per bag of the inferior sorts, and Rs.9 to Rs.12 for the better qualities.

The quantity imported and exported in 1875-76 is shown in the table on next page.

Jowarî (*b.*)—This grain is brought from the interior,[1] on camels, in great quantities; as also from Lohaia, Hodaida, Mokha, Lamu, Persia, and Bombay by sea. It is of two colours and several varieties—'Raisî white,' 'Raisî red,' 'Saif,' 'Lohaia red or Zadir,' and 'Bokr' or 'Gharbah.' 'Raisî,' white and red, is large in grain; the rest are smaller. Jowarî is usually packed in large or small mat-bags; the former are called 'Attal,' and the latter 'Mazakwah.'

[1] See Captain Prideaux's Report: Government of India: Selection No. VIII. of 20th January 1872 for System of Agriculture in surrounding Districts.

It is sold by the candy[1] by weight, and by the 'Kailah'[1] by measure.

A candy[2] of Persian, Lamu, Zanzibar, or Bombay jowarî fetches from Rs.18 to Rs.25; that from the interior is sold at from 4 to 6 'Kailahs'[3] per dollar.

Jowarî is much used by the Arabs and Somalis for food; the latter boil and eat it like rice, the former pound it on a flat stone with a stone roller, moistening it with water at the same time till it assumes the consistence of a thick paste or dough; this is allowed to ferment for a short time, after which it is made into circular

TABLE SHOWING THE QUANTITY OF RICE IMPORTED AND EXPORTED IN 1875-76.

From	Cwt.	To	Cwt.
		Ports on East coast of Africa, .	32,577
		Jiddah, ...	2,784
		Hodaida, ...	7,264
		Mokha, ...	1,945
		Lohaia, ...	326
		Gaizan, ...	147
Calcutta, . .	55,509	Muskat, ...	986
Bombay, . .	9,093	Arabian ports in Gulf of Aden, .	10,992
Madras, . .	1,554	Persia, ...	749
		Perim, ...	359
		Interior of Arabia, . . .	1,766
Total, .	66,156	Total, .	59,895

cakes of about half a pound each, and then baked in an earthen oven. These ovens are made of common mud, and are circular and funnel-shaped, about five or six feet in circumference, open at both ends like a barrel. The oven is fixed in the ground, and a hole made below to remove the ashes of the burnt fuel, and also to allow a current of air to pass through. The cakes are placed inside on hot ashes; the dry stalks of jowarî are used for fuel; about forty or fifty cakes can be baked at once in a good-sized oven. There are two kinds of cake, 'Fatîr' unfermented, and 'Kidr' fermented; they are hawked about, and sold at about half an anna the half-pound cake.

[1] See Weights and Measures, p. 74.

[2] 6 cwt.

[3] 60 to 90 lbs. per 2 rupees 2 annas.

The following quantities of jowarî were imported and exported in 1875-76 :—

From	Cwt	To	Cwt
		Massowa, ...	1,148
Interior, . .	69,990	Dankali ports, ...	3,524
Zanzibar, . .	1,333	Zaila, ...	3,030
Hodaida, . .	287	Berbera, ...	7,687
Mokha, . .	998	Other Somali ports, . .	2,835
Persia, . .	11,141	Jiddah, ...	1,516
Bombay, . .	3,518	Gaizan, ...	720
Cutch, . .	5,348	Arabian Gulf ports, . . .	7,670
		Perim, ...	265
Total, .	92,615	Total, .	28,395

Wheat (*c.*)—But small quantity of this grain is brought from the interior, Persia and India supplying the market. It is used by the Arab and other inhabitants as food, and is also made into bread for the troops in the Government Steam-Bakery, which can turn out 2000 lbs. of bread, and the same quantity of biscuit per diem.

Hand-grinding is done at one anna per 'Payalî' (4¼ lbs.) Latterly flour has been imported for the use of the garrison and shipping from Trieste, and in 1875-76, 1793 cwt. were thus received; it costs Rs.5¼ per 'Maund.'[1] Indian flour costs Rs.3¾ per 'Maund.'

Wheaten flour is sometimes mixed with jowarî.

The wheat from the interior is of inferior quality; it is called 'Jebeli;' that from India and Persia, 'Hansîa' or 'Bassorawi.' It is sold at 4 'Payalîs' (21 lbs. nearly) per rupee.

The quantity imported and exported in 1875-76 is given below :—

From	Cwt.	To	Cwt
Persia, . .	2,861	African ports, . . .	100
Bombay, . .	22,204	Jiddah, ...	5,738
Cutch, . .	768	Hodaida, ...	585
Interior, . .	4,018	Arabian Gulf ports, . . .	315
Total, .	29,851	Total, .	6,738

Bajrî (*d.*)—This grain is chiefly imported from the interior. It is used in the shape of bread in the same manner as 'Jowarî;'

[1] 28 lbs.

but, being somewhat dearer, is eaten by the better classes only. Somalis do not use this grain. It is not pounded like 'Jowarí,' but is ground in hand-mills, and is sweetish in taste.

Bajrí is sold at from 4 to 5 'Payalís' (21 lbs.) per rupee.

The quantity imported and exported in 1875-76 is given below:—

From	Cwt.	To	Cwt
Interior, . .	20,328	Jiddah, ...	223
		Arabian Gulf Ports, . .	283
Mokha, . .	526	Cutch, ...	882
Total, .	20,854	Total, .	1388

Pulse (*e.*)—Called in India 'Dhall.' Four kinds are imported into Aden—'Oorud' (Arabic 'Dizar Aswad'), 'Toor,' 'Moong' (Arabic 'Kicheri'), and 'Mussur' (Arabic 'Adas'). The two first named are used by natives of India, especially by native soldiers, and are imported from Cutch, and the two latter by Arabs.

The quantity imported and exported in 1875-76 was as follows:—

From	Cwt	To	Cwt
Jiddah, . .	510		
Hodaidah, . .	96	African Ports, ...	199
Lohaia, . .	504	Arabian Gulf Ports, . . .	124
Firsan, . .	70	Perim, ...	54
Bombay, . .	1772	Bombay, ...	102
Cutch, . . .	246	Cutch, ...	200
Interior, . .	3420		
Total, .	6621	Total, .	679

Indian Corn or Maize (*f.*)—This grain in Arabia is called 'Hind;' it is grown in Yemen, and is imported, by land and by sea, also from Mokha. It is used for bread after being made into flour, but it is more frequently eaten simply roasted. Ears of Indian corn, ready roasted, can be purchased at the street corners for two pice, or half of an anna, per head. The price per 100 is from 8 to 12 annas.

The quantity imported and exported in 1875-76 is given below:—

From	Cwt.	To	Cwt.
Interior, . .	4000	Arabian Gulf Ports, . . .	356
Mokha, . .	200		
Total, .	4200	Total, .	356

FODDER.—Aden draws its supplies of fodder from the surrounding districts.

Grass comes from the Lahej and Fadhli districts. The supply is constant, and fully meets the demand; a camel-load, weighing about three 'Maunds,'[1] costs about Rs.2½.

Kirbee, that is, the stalks of jowarî and bajrî, also arrives daily in sufficient quantities from the same districts. When green, a camel-load may generally be purchased for two rupees, and when dry for R.1.

Camels, horses, cattle, and asses are fed on this fodder instead of grass, on account of its cheapness.

FIREWOOD.—Although Aden is a coaling station, yet for cooking purposes firewood is invariably used. This commodity is imported daily in large quantities from the Akrabi, Lahej, and Fadhli districts. It consists of either dried branches or logs of babool wood; the former are sold for about Rs.2 a camel-load, and the latter for about Rs.5 per candy.[2]

Charcoal is also much used. For its method of preparation, price, etc., see Manufactures and Industries, p. 81.

VEGETABLES.—So early as 1840 the attention of Government was directed to the necessity of devising some means of providing the garrison, if not the civil population, with vegetables, not only for their comfort, but as a preventive against scurvy. Up to that time vegetables had been purchased from the interior and from the neighbouring ports of Mokha, Makalla, and Shehr, with but moderate success. In 1841 Government sanctioned a small plot being cultivated as an experiment for six months, and in 1842 the 100 square feet which had been prepared and sown in one of the northern valleys produced nearly 2000 lbs. of vegetables during three months when the supplies from the interior were entirely cut off.

[1] 84 lbs. [2] 8 cwt.

In 1846 two native gardeners were employed, but they could not be induced to remain in Aden. The success hitherto obtained induced Government in 1847 to direct that this garden should be kept up and extended, and a small amount towards its support was sanctioned. Celery, lettuce, and nohl-kohl were raised; earth was brought from Lahej; still only sufficient vegetables were grown to supply the hospital. However, during this year, a large number of camel-loads of vegetables arrived from the interior, consisting of pumpkins, radishes, onions, together with melons, limes, bhendîs, brinjals, and three or four kinds of bajîs. In 1854 Sir James Outram suggested the establishment of a garden at the Hiswah, which is a piece of ground on the northern shore of the harbour, about four miles long by two broad, watered by the torrents[1] that occasionally descend from the neighbouring hills and here discharge themselves into the sea. Government sanctioned the employment of two gardeners, a supply of seeds was sent, and an additional sum of Rs.60 per annum was allowed for contingencies. This garden preserved a desultory existence for a few years. In 1857 gardeners were despatched to the Lahej district to instruct the people in the growth of English vegetables, seeds were sent to the Sultan, and a camel-load arrived in Aden every two or three days. During 1861 and 1862 sweet potatoes, onions, pumpkins, bhendîs, brinjals, toorai, and radishes were obtained from Makalla and the Lahej district. Upwards of 20,000 lbs. of vegetables were at that time brought into Aden annually; potatoes and onions were imported from Bombay, and it was proposed, but subsequently negatived, to revive the Hiswah scheme.

In 1863 Colonel Merewether applied himself to the resuscitation of the garden at the Hiswah, and it was worked at a loss, 6200 lbs. of vegetables only being produced in a year.

In 1865 a Persian wheel was erected, as also a fort for the protection of the garden, and 14,095 lbs. of vegetables were raised.

In 1866 a piece of ground about three acres in extent, near Al-Hautah, was obtained from the Sultan of Lahej, which was placed under cultivation, and the Hiswah[2] and Lahej gardens together produced 37,182 lbs. of vegetables, which were supplied to the garrison.

In 1868-69 a considerable quantity of vegetables was raised and disposed of to the military department, at two annas per lb. In

[1] The Wadi al Kabîr. See map of neighbouring districts.

[2] After 1866 the garden at Hiswah was abandoned by Government.

the beginning of 1872 three more acres were placed under cultivation at Lahej, and at present the garden is worked at a profit. In 1875-76 the expenditure amounted to Rs.4055, and the receipts to Rs.6145. In 1874-75 the net profit was Rs.710.

There can be no doubt that were better gardeners obtainable, and more efficient supervision possible, the garden could be rendered very much more productive, as almost every kind of European and native vegetable can be grown.

In 1875-76, 57,959 lbs. of vegetables were supplied to the Commissariat Department, and 7590 lbs. were sold to the public, at one anna and six pies per lb. The gardeners, with one exception, at present employed are sepoys of the native infantry regiment stationed at Aden.

Besides the Government garden, one of the local merchants possesses a piece of ground near Al-Hautah, which assists to provide the local market. Other small patches of country vegetables are grown in the neighbouring districts, and irregular supplies arrive from Suez and Mokha, which find a ready sale to the shipping. Potatoes and onions are imported from Bombay and Egypt.

A market has been erected by a Parsee gentleman, in which vegetables that arrive from the interior are sold, among other articles of food.

Fruits.—A few grapes, guavas, and figs are yielded by the trees in the Government garden, and similar fruits arrive from the interior. Grapes, fresh dates, mangoes, musk, and water-melons are received from the Lahej district. Grapes, pomegranates, quinces, peaches, mangoes, plantains, limes, walnuts, almonds, raisins, and figs arrive from the surrounding districts of Yemen. From Zanzibar large quantities of oranges and pine-apples are received; and from Bombay, mangoes, pumaloes, and oranges. Other fresh fruits, such as apples, pears, and many of those already mentioned, occasionally arrive by sea from Mauritius, Singapore, Suez, Malta, and France.

DOMESTIC ANIMALS.—The domestic and other useful animals in British territory are (*a.*) the horse, (*b.*) the camel, (*c.*) the ass, (*d.*) the ox and cow, (*e.*) the sheep and goat, (*f.*) the mule, (*g.*) poultry.

(*a.*) *The Horse.*—Horses[1] arrive in Aden from four different sources,—1. Somali coast; 2. Interior; 3. India; 4. Egypt.

[1] The substance of the information regarding horses has been kindly furnished by Major Stevens, Commanding the Aden Troop, and his long experience of horses in Aden gives it a special claim to reliance.

1. The Somali ponies—for they are hardly large enough to be called even galloways—seldom stand more than 13 hands 3 inches. They undoubtedly owe something to the Arab strain; but in appearance they more resemble miniature Cape horses, having, as a rule, a neck light almost to a fault, good forehands, and well-developed withers. In their native country they are totally unaccustomed to grain, and are much neglected and overworked; in consequence they generally remain stunted and insignificant-looking. Those that are fortunate enough to fall into good hands when young, often grow into powerful, clever, and handsome little horses. A horse of this class, the property of an officer in the Bombay Cavalry, won the prize for 'hacks' at the Poonah Horse Show in 1876.

The usual price of a young Somali pony in poor condition, immediately after importation, is about Rs.30 to Rs.50. In a few months they become worth double or treble their original cost, if properly taken care of. They are excellently adapted for draught, and run all over the Settlement in the hired conveyances.

2. Arab horses, of an inferior stamp, are at times imported from the interior, chiefly from the neighbourhood of Sanaa, sometimes by sea from Hodaida. The arrivals are few, however, and the animals are speedily purchased by the officer commanding the Aden Troop, as remounts for his men. They seem to answer tolerably well, being for the most part full-sized; but some prove to be of highly excitable temperament, and scarcely maintain the Arab reputation for docility.

The Sultan of Lahej, and other neighbouring chiefs, do a little horse-breeding, and the produce occasionally finds its way into Aden in the way of presents to Government. These horses are of a better stamp than those imported from Sanaa.

3. India.—Officers arriving at Aden with their regiments frequently bring horses with them as chargers, and these animals generally remain in the Settlement for good, their masters as a rule going to Europe before returning to India.

4. Egypt.—The officer commanding the Aden Troop has recently obtained a few horses from Egypt, but it is too early yet to speak as to the success of the experiment.

Disease.—The equine race seem to enjoy comparative immunity from disease in Aden, though epidemics among horses are not unknown in the neighbourhood.

Fresh animals from the highlands are somewhat apt to contract

an ailment very similar to influenza, which, however, yields readily to prompt treatment. There also appears to be a tendency to canker and sandcrack, to be accounted for by the nature of the soil.

(*b.*) *The Camel.*—The best camels obtainable in Aden are those reared by the Azaibee (sub-tribe of the Abdali), which fetch, when four years old, about $50[1] each (Rs.100); they are kept almost entirely for riding purposes, being very light-limbed and fleet; their colour is a light fawn, and the coat is frequently soft and silky, like that of a well-groomed horse; females of course are never sold.

The camels reared by the Subaihi tribes are very inferior, and seldom fetch more than $25 per head; they are used both for riding and burden.

The camels that come from the hilly districts of Yemen and Abyan resemble those last mentioned, seldom selling for more than $20 each; they are not strong, and can carry but light loads. The Sanaa camel, as it is called, a large dark long-haired variety, is more valuable, and a good animal will fetch $40.

There are two African varieties,—the Dankali and Somali; the former are fairly good, and can be purchased for $30 each; the latter are very inferior, and carry but light burdens; the price of one seldom exceeds $10 to $12.

The loads that each species can carry without being overburdened are given below :—

Azaibee and Akrabi,	1000 lbs.	Jebeli, . .	560 lbs.
Sanaa, . . .	900 „	Dankali, . .	560 „
Subaihi, . . .	840 „	Somali, . .	450 „

(*c.*) *The Ass.*—Aden has the credit of possessing a fine breed of asses,[2] and certainly they seem to possess wonderful powers of endurance; they are small in stature, generally dark in colour, and very sure-footed; they trot along at a fast amble, each carrying a load of from five to eight small skins, containing on an average each four gallons, that is, about two cwt. of water in all.

The best asses come from Zebîd, near Mokha; they are principally used for riding purposes, and, when in good condition, fetch $15 each.

The asses that come from the neighbouring hill districts are sold for about $6 per head.

[1] The nominal value of a dollar is two rupees two annas. For rate at the time this was written, see under head of Currency.

[2] Burton's *Mecca and Medina*, vol. ii. p. 292.

No asses are reared in Aden itself, and female donkeys are but seldom seen.

(*d.*) *Ox and Cow.*—Good bullocks for draught purposes are obtainable in the Lahej district, at an average price of $30 per pair; those from other parts of the country are cheaper. The Arabian very much resemble the Indian species.

Aden cows are justly celebrated. They are small in size; but when taken care of and well fed will yield, immediately after calving, two gallons of good milk in the morning, and the same quantity in the afternoon. The usual price of a fair cow is $15, but a really good animal can command $50. The best cows come from Kidâm and Hâski, in the Lahej district.

The bullocks that are used for food are imported from the African coast; they are superior in size and quality to those that are found in Arabia. The average price of an animal for slaughter is from $8 to $10. Each skin is worth $1½ uncured. No cows are ever sent over from the Somali coast, except for slaughter.

(*e.*) *Sheep and Goat.*—The fat-tailed, black-faced, Berbera sheep is well known and needs no description. The usual price paid for an animal in good condition in the season (that is, from September to April or May) is about $1½. Male goats from the African coast fetch nearly $2 a head on account of their skins, which are sold for about twelve annas each. No female sheep or goats are brought from the Somali coast so long as they are in milk or capable of producing young. Some few however come over from the Dankali country. Milch goats and sheep are brought in from the surrounding districts; the best come from the F'adhli country, and fetch $2 and upwards per head; those from Lahej seldom more than $1. Arabian sheep and goats are smaller in size than the African, and are totally different in appearance.

The annual demand for sheep and cattle for food purposes is yearly increasing, and during the year 1875-76, 63,262 sheep and goats and 1104 cattle were imported from Africa by sea.

(*f.*) *Mule.*—A few mules are annually imported from the African coast; they are brought from Harrar, a district situated 160 miles south-west from Berbera, and are sold in Aden for about $40 each.

(*g.*) *Poultry.*—Considerable numbers of fowls are reared by the people of the neighbouring districts, by which means the Settlement is kept well supplied with eggs. A good-sized fowl can always be purchased for eight annas. Ducks, geese, and turkeys are brought from Suez, and are very expensive, averaging Rs. 5, Rs. 10, and Rs. 20 a pair respectively.

CHAPTER II.—TRADE AND COMMERCE.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The following weights and measures are in use in the Settlement:—

1 Wakeeah = 1 ounce (avoirdupois) = 1 German crown.
16 ditto = 1 Rattal = 1 pound (avoirdupois).
30¾ Rattals = 1 Farasilah of Jebel (used for coffee only).
32½ ditto = 1 ditto of Berbera.
33 ditto = 1 ditto of Jebel (Interior).
35 ditto = 1 ditto of Harrar or Zaila.

Besides the above the following are also used:—

TABLE II.

1 Bahar = 3 hundredweight (avoirdupois).
1 Hakisah = 3¼ ditto.
1 Hamal of dates = 4 bags or kôsarah = 5 hundredweight (avoirdupois).
1 ditto[1] by land = 6 to 7 hundredweight = 2 large packages.
1 ditto[1] by sea = 14 to 15 ditto = 8 small ditto.
6 cwt. of grain = 1 candy.
8 cwt. of firewood = 1 candy.

N.B.—Pounds, quarters, hundredweights, and tons of the English standard (avoirdupois), and maunds and candies of the Indian standard are also in use in the Settlement.

MEASURES OF CAPACITY.

1 Thuman or payali = 5¼ lbs. avoirdupois.
3 ditto = Kailah = 15¾ lbs. avoirdupois.
1 Kasîmah = 3 lbs. (ghee and oil) = 2 quarts.
3 ditto = 1 imperial gallon.

LINEAL MEASURE.

2 Dthara' = 1 yard.
1 Thobe = 8 yards.

Coins are used as the standard in making and selling gold and silver ornaments. The German crown and a gold coin[2] called

[1] All other articles except dates.
[2] Generally Turkish.

Rutlî' or 'Maskas' are melted down for the manufacture of ornaments.

There is no particular weight used in buying and selling pearls and other precious stones.

NOTES.—'*Wakîah.*'—This standard weight is equal to very nearly an ounce or one silver German crown, and is used in weighing small quantities and fractional parts of a 'rattal.'

'*Rattal.*'—Valuable articles, such as feathers, saffron, shells (tortoise), silk (raw), cotton twist, and yarns, also latterly grey cotton goods are sold and purchased by this weight.

'*Farâsilah.*'—There are three kinds of this weight all used in different places; by it gums, coffee, wax, honey, ivory, shells, and tallow are weighed. There does not appear to have ever been an original standard 'Farâsilah;' the recent practice was to fix a stone standard or 'Farâsilah' for each transaction; gradually however the 'Farâsilah' assumed a fixed weight in different places, and the standards are now as given in Table No. I.

'*Bahâr.*'—There are three kinds of 'Bahâr,' varying in size according to the article to be weighed. For cotton, 1 Bahâr = 3½ cwt. Incense and gum maithee, 1 Bahâr = 3 cwt. Tobacco, 1 Bahâr = 2½ cwt. It is used only by the inhabitants of Shehr and Makalla in the Arabian Gulf.

'*Hakîsah.*'—Cotton only is sold to the Arabs of the interior by this weight.

'*Hamal.*'—Jowarî and dates are sold by the 'Hamal' or load, which also varies with the article weighed, and the manner of import or export (*vide* Table No. II.)

'*Candy.*'—An Indian weight used at Aden in weighing grain and pulse, cotton from India, and firewood.

'*Thuman*' or '*Payalî.*'—A measure used in selling small quantities of grain. It is equal to four Bombay seers, or 5¼ lbs. avoirdupois.

'*Kailah*' or '*Kasîmah.*'—The former is used for measuring grain, and the latter for measuring liquids, such as oil, ghee, and vinegar. The weight of these differs according to the article measured. The annexed table shows their equivalents in English and Indian weights as fixed by Government.

'*Dthara*'.'—The Somalis and Arabs use this lineal measure for lengths of cotton piece goods of different manufacture. It is supposed to equal the distance from the tip of the forefinger to the elbow. Two 'Dthara'' are nearly equal to one yard.

BENGAL SECRETARIAT

TABLE showing the equivalent, as fixed by Government, in English and Indian weights, of the standards used in Aden for weighing certain articles :—

MEASURES.	ARTICLES.	AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT.		MAUNDS.	SEERS.	CHITTARS.
		Lbs.	Oz.			
Kasimah, . .	Ghee, ...	3	0	0	1	7
Do. . . .	Oil (gingelly), . . .	3	0	0	1	7
Do. . . .	Rain water, . . .	3	5	0	1	10
Kailah,[1] . .	Bajri, ...	16	4	0	7	14
Do. . . .	Beans, ...	14	12½	0	7	3
Do. . . .	Dhal (Toor), . . .	16	0	0	7	12
Do. . . .	Grain (Bengal), . . .	15	15	0	7	12
Do. . . .	Jowari, ...	15	0	0	7	9
Do. . . .	Maize, ...	14	14	0	7	4
Do. . . .	Oorud, ...	17	2	0	8	5
Do. . . .	Oorud (dhall), . . .	15	8	0	7	9
Do. . . .	Peas, ...	16	0	0	7	12
Do. . . .	Rice, ...	16	12	0	8	2
Do. . . .	Salt, ...	18	11½	0	9	2
Do. . . .	Wheat (Hansia), . .	16	12	0	8	2
Do. . . .	Wheat (country), . .	15	6	0	7	8

CURRENCY.—The various currencies in use in the Settlement are given below :—

Gold.

COIN.	QUASI VALUE. EACH. RS. A. P.	REMARKS.
British sovereign, . .	10 4 0	Varies with the rate of exchange. In January 1877 a sovereign was worth Rs. 11-4-0. Coinage dated 1829, 1830, 1832, 1852, and 1875.
Ditto half ditto, . . .	5 2 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 5-10-6. Coinage dated 1874.
Australian sovereign, . .	10 4 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 11-5-0. Ditto 1870.
Ditto half ditto, . . .	5 2 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 5-10-6. Ditto 1856.
FRANCE.		
Napoleon of 20 francs each,	8 4 0	Varies with the rate of exchange. In January 1877 its value was Rs. 8-12. Coinage dated 1854.
Ditto 10 ditto, .	4 2 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 4-6-0. Ditto 1856.
Ditto 5 ditto, .	2 1 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 2-3-0. Ditto 1859-'60-'64.
AMERICA.		
Dollar (eagle of the United States), 20 silver dols. each,	42 8 0	Varies with the rate of exchange. In January 1877 was worth Rs. 44. Coinage dated 1866.
Ditto 10 ditto, .	21 4 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 22. Ditto 1849.
Ditto 5 ditto, .	10 10 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 11. Ditto 1849.
Ditto 1 ditto, .	2 2 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 2-3-2. Ditto 1859.
TURKEY.		
Piece of 100 piastres each, .	9 0 0	Varies with the rate of exchange. In January 1877 was worth Rs. 9-12-0. Coinage dated 1859.
Ditto 50 ditto, .	4 8 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 4-14-0. Ditto 1859.
Ditto 25 ditto, .	2 4 0	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 2-7-0. Ditto 1859.

[1] 3 payalis = 1 kailah.

Silver.—The Indian coinage is in general use. An English shilling passes as half a rupee, and sixpence as four annas. The following foreign silver coins are also current:—

Coin	Value	Remarks	Annual Demand
	Rs		
Austria.			
Dollar (Maria Theresa), 100 $	212½	Varies with the rate of exchange. Value in January 1877, Rs. 216. These dollars are all dated 1780, but are of recent coinage.	1,200,000
Spain.			
Dollar, 100 $, . . .	230	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 233, . Coinage dated 1788-90, 1806, and 1817.	60,000
Netherlands.			
Dollar (2½ Guilders), 100 $,	220	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 224, . Coinage dated 1867.	100,000
America.			
Dollar (Eagle), 100 $, .	220	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 224, . Coinage dated 1863.	15,000
France.			
5 Franc Piece, 100 $, .	200	Ditto. Ditto Rs. 217, . Coinage dated 1851.	30,000

The smaller silver coins of foreign countries have no fixed value, and are taken at about their nominal value in Indian currency. The favourite coin in use in this part of Arabia is the Maria Theresa dollar. The average value of each is about 2 rupees and 2 annas, or 212 rupees per 100 dollars. Of course, as already noticed, this is affected by the local demand.

The value of all other gold and silver foreign coins is fixed by the bullion merchants, in accordance with information received by telegraph from Bombay as to the rates ruling there. In default of advices from Bombay, foreign coins are sold by weight and touch. The relative value of gold to silver is about fifteen to one. The mark used for dollars is $.

Exchange.—The rate of exchange on Europe is regulated in Aden by advices from Bombay, and during 1876 it averaged 15½ per cent. at sight, and 14⅝ths per cent. at 30 days' sight.

Merchants in Aden who do business in Europe remit by bills of exchange in payment of goods so long as drafts are to be purchased at less than 8 to 10 per cent.; but when more is demanded they remit by produce, such as coffee, skins, gum, etc.

Communications and Means of Conveyance.—*Main Roads.*—

The main roads in the Settlement are in charge of the Public Works Department, and a certain sum annually is set aside for repairs, from Imperial revenues. Great difficulty is experienced in keeping the roads in the Settlement in good order, owing to the high winds which blow with considerable and almost incessant violence during the south-west and north-east monsoons. These remove the top-dressing of earth or sand, leaving the bare metal, which soon loses its compactness and becomes uneven and broken.

By-Roads.—The by-roads and streets are constructed and kept in order out of municipal funds.

Main Pass.—The steepness of the approaches to the main pass on both sides adds very greatly to the inconvenience caused by the separation of the town and harbour. The distance by road from the Saluting Pier to the mess of the British regiment in the Crater is exactly five miles.

Conveyances.—These may be divided into those for man and those for goods.

Public Land Conveyances.—Conveyances for man are either public or private. The former are under Government[1] control, and on land the superintendent of police licenses and inspects all carriages for hire. At preser . there are forty-five licensed carriages. The class of vehicles used is that usually known as 'American Spider;' the wheels are very light, as is indeed the whole carriage, for a public conveyance; the great disadvantage is the unpleasant proximity of the Somali driver, and the small space between the front and hind wheels makes it very difficult for a lady to get in or out. These traps are drawn by one or two Somali ponies; the harness when new is not of the best, and it not unfrequently happens that something gives way either in the carriage, which is never taken care of, or the harness, which is usually patched with rope, on a journey from Steamer Point to the Crater. The remedy is not easy; of course the licenses could be suspended, but the owners of hired conveyances are seldom wealthy. Vehicles are dear (the original cost of an American carriage is usually Rs.800 to Rs.1000).[2] The wear and tear is very great both for horse and trap; grass and grain are expensive; passengers are not unfrequently too sharp to become the subjects of 'tricks on travellers.'

Altogether the profits are small, hardly 10 per cent. net on the outlay; the fares are as low as they can well be placed, taking

[1] Bombay Act VI. of 1863.

[2] For price of ponies, see Domestic Animals. Harness about Rs.50 a set.

into consideration the distances to be gone; and as high, looking to the nature of accommodation at present provided. From Steamer Point to the Crater, for one or two persons, the charge is 1 rupee 8 annas, and 12 annas as return fare; any detention over an hour is paid for at 6 annas per hour. For more than two persons the fares and detention charges are one-fourth more.[1] Full particulars can be obtained on reference to the 'Table of Fares' in possession of each driver. Besides carriages, a number of donkeys are let out for hire, the fare from the Crater to Steamer Point being 4 annas, and 2 annas return.

Public Water Conveyance.—There are jolly-boats which ply for hire in the harbour; they are under the supervision of the Conservator of the port. Each boat is licensed under Bombay Act VI. of 1863. The crews are usually five in number, invariably Somalis, and are very troublesome. An inspector is stationed at the Saluting Pier, who tells off the boats for duty in their turn, and hears complaints. Each boat can hold from six to twelve passengers; the fares are regulated by the distance gone, and the detention; the lowest charge is 4 annas to a vessel inside the light-ship, and 2 annas return. A salutary and very necessary rule exists, that the boat-inspector is not to provide a boat for any passenger who has not settled his carriage fare.

Private Conveyances.—Many persons possess private carriages[2] in the Settlement—phaetons, victorias, dog-carts, buggies, etc. A carriage for Aden requires to be light enough to allow of its being drawn by a Somali pony; strong enough to stand the jar of metalled roads; well-seasoned in the wood-work to endure the dry climate; comfortable to sit in for long distances, and should have a light and moveable hood coming well down in front to keep out the morning and afternoon sun, the main road from the Crater to the Point running nearly due east and west for nearly three miles. People whose avocations take them afloat possess private boats; a few are kept for pleasure.

Conveyance of Goods—Land.—The principal method of conveying goods is on camels. Camels are licensed,[3] the fare being 6 annas from the Crater to Steamer Point. For the loads carried, see under Domestic Animals, as also for an account of donkeys, riding and burden.

[1] By the day the charge is 4 or 5 rupees.

[2] Private carriages and horses are not taxed.

[3] See Municipal Rates and Taxes, p. 133.

Carts are licensed; they are drawn by bullocks (the municipal rubbish-carts are drawn by camels), and the fare is 1 rupee 4 annas from the Crater to Steamer Point.

Many camels, asses, and carts are private property.

Water.—All boats[1] for conveyance of goods are licensed under section 161 of the Indian Customs Act (1863); the fee is Rs.3 per boat per annum. Bumboats are taxed under local rules at Rs.2 per mensem, the proceeds going to the Port Fund.

LOCAL AND EUROPEAN INDUSTRIES.—The following local industries are practised:—(*a.*) House-building; (*b.*) Mat and String making; (*c.*) Weaving and Spinning; (*d.*) Oil-pressing; (*e.*) Lime-burning; (*f.*) Charcoal-burning; (*g.*) Potash-burning; (*h.*) Salt-drying; (*i.*) Dyeing; (*j.*) Distilling; (*k.*) Boat-building.

(*a.*) *House-building.*—Arabs, Jews, and Indians work as masons. No attention is paid to architectural style in the construction of the houses, which consist of four walls and a roof. The walls are built of irregular blocks of stone cemented with lime or mud, and are usually 1½ to 2 feet thick. The timber or beams rest on the walls instead of on wooden posts; this is done to save expense, timber being very expensive. For the same reason, as little timber as possible is used in construction; reeds or bamboos take the place of planks for roofs and upper stories; mortar mixed with small stones or pebbles is spread on the reeds or bamboos, which are first covered with mats, and the surface is then smoothed and polished.

So long as the outer coating of mortar remains intact, rain is kept out, but one crack is sufficient to render a house unpleasantly leaky. Taylor's tiles are being gradually introduced for Government buildings, also asphalt for flooring.

The timber used for building purposes is imported from the undermentioned places:—

Place.	Wood.
Bombay, ...	Teak and Ben Teak.
Malabar, ...	Ben Teak and Jungle Wood Spars.
Singapoor, ...	Java Wood.
Zanzibar, ...	Rafters and Spars of Jungle Wood.
Trieste, ...	Deal.

Teak is sparingly used on account of its high price.

Each house generally consists of a front room, a back verandah, and a small yard, surrounded with a high wall to guard the harem

[1] Including coal and cargo lighters, bungalows, zaimahs, etc.

from the vulgar gaze when employed in domestic affairs. The front room serves the occupant for sitting and sleeping purposes, the verandah for cooking and keeping water-jars, and the yard for washing, bathing, etc.

Arab houses are generally decorated with an infinite number of coffee-cups stuck all over the walls, as also copper pots, etc.

The cost of building an ordinary-sized house (with two rooms, verandah, and yard behind) of mud and stone would be from Rs.500 to Rs.1000.

The houses used by, and built specially for, Europeans, when constructed of stone and lime masonry, and properly finished woodwork, can be erected for from Rs.5000 to Rs.10,000 each. Some of the buildings that occupy the front of 'Prince of Wales' Crescent' at Steamer Point, and the regimental mess-houses, cost probably not less than Rs.15,000 or Rs.20,000 each, and in a few cases very much more.

In several parts of the Settlement, houses for Europeans, especially for officers of the garrison at Steamer Point, are built of reeds and mats on a raised plinth.

The poorer classes build reed and mat houses for from Rs.10 to Rs.100. Somalis bring their dwellings with them from Africa and erect them at the village of Maala. These huts consist of bamboo frames covered with the skins of animals, hair outwards; they are very like bee-hives in appearance, especially when standing isolated. So rooted is the Somali prejudice against stone walls, that when his means allow of his living in a stone dwelling, he frequently erects his hut of skins inside one of the rooms.

(*b.*) *Mat and String-making.*—Dry leaves of the doom and date palms are imported from the ports on the Dankali coast and Massowah; they are manufactured into mats. String is also made by twisting the leaves together with the hand; this is called 'Aden string.' To make mats the leaves are divided into small strips, which are plaited into a ribbon three or four inches wide and of great length. This ribbon is stitched or spliced spirally into a cylindrical shape, the diameter representing the required breadth, and the axis the necessary length; this hollow cylinder is then cut down with a knife parallel to the axis, and the broken edges are bound. Somali women are exceedingly expert in the manufacture of these mats, which are in great request for sleeping purposes amongst Somalis themselves. The coarser kinds are used for the construction of sheds and roofing of houses. Plates, baskets,

sacks, and many other articles are made of these strips of matting.

(*c.*) *Weaving and Spinning.*—Cotton is spun into thread by hand-spindles, and sometimes machine-made yarns or twists are used in hand-looms of the very simplest construction. The threads are passed through a frame, which is held together by strings at the top and bottom, and is attached to a board worked by the feet. When the board is pressed, one set of threads is lifted, and the shuttle is passed between the two sets with the hand; by continuous labour a fabric of a coarse texture is woven. There are about twenty-five hand-looms in Aden, worked by Arabs and Jews. Lungies, mandîls, and other narrow-breadth cloths are made.

Machine-made twist is now almost generally used. There are two looms which weave silken cloths.

Spinning is practised by a few industrious Jewish women, who obtain profit and pleasure in the employment.

(*d.*) *Oil-pressing.*—Oil from 'til'[1] or gingelly seeds is extracted by a simple contrivance. A log of wood is hollowed out conically and fixed in the ground. A wooden shaft is fitted into this perpendicularly, and a pole is attached horizontally, one end of which is weighted with stones to increase the pressure created by the upright shaft; to the other end of the pole a camel is yoked, which works blindfolded in a circle; the seed is thus pressed in the conical trough, and the oil is removed by steeping a cloth in the fluid, and squeezing it into another receptacle. The refuse is used as fodder for camels and cattle. There are about twelve of these mills in Aden.

(*e.*) *Lime-burning.*—Lime, or 'Chunam,' as it is usually called, is manufactured in Aden for house-building purposes by Arabs, who work fifteen kilns. Lumps of coral, found on the opposite coast of the harbour, are placed in a circular oven, which is heated to a red heat; salt water is then thrown in, when the coral crumbles into a dry powder; wood from the interior, and cinders from the furnaces of condensers, are used as fuel. Lime is sold by a cubic measure, $1\frac{3}{4}$ feet square by 1 foot deep; this is called a 'Farah.' Four or five of these measures are sold for one dollar (equal to 2 rupees and 2 annas), exclusive of carriage.

Each owner of a limekiln pays to the municipal fund a fee of Rs.3 per quarter.

(*f.*) *Charcoal-burning.*—Charcoal is brought from the interior and the African coast; it is used by the Arabs for cooking and other

[1] Sesamum Indicum.—Black, imported from interior, white from Bombay.

household purposes. Pieces of a soft kind of wood, from 1 to ¾ths of an inch in diameter, are placed in a pit; rubbish, dry cattle-dung, etc., are thrown in; the whole is then covered over with earth, four or five holes being left to allow the smoke to escape. The mass is fired, and, after being permitted to smoulder from four to six days, the covering of earth is removed, and the charcoal is ready for use. It is sold in Aden at R.1, 5 annas per 'maund' of 28 lbs.

(*g.*) *Potash or Alkali-burning.*—Aden balsam, which is however not found in any quantity in the place itself, is prepared in the Abdali and Fadhli districts. The balsam is thrown into small pits, about two feet wide by one deep, and wood is added: the mass is then set fire to, and as the sap exudes from the plant, it mingles with the ashes; the mixture is stirred and allowed to cool, when it is dug up and sent into Aden on camels for sale. The price is 8 annas per maund of 28 lbs., and the potash is exported to Bombay for washing purposes.

(*h.*) *Salt-dressing.*—The salt-marshes, near the village of Shaikh O'thman, yield considerable quantities of salt, which is obtained, as elsewhere, by evaporating sea-water in shallow pans. The salt, after removal from the pans, is piled in little heaps on dry ground. It is sold at 1½ anna per 'Payalî.'

(*i.*) *Dyeing.*—A blue colour is given to grey cotton-piece goods with indigo, by saturating the cloth and then drying it in the sun. The material when dried is folded and laid on a wooden block; it is then beaten with a wooden club; this process gives the upper fold of the cloth a glaze, and it is repeated till the whole fabric is glazed. The colour is not fast, and now-a-days much blue-coloured cloth is imported from Surat and Bombay in pieces of from four to six yards each.

(*j.*) *Distilling.*—The privilege of distilling country liquor for use by the Jewish community is farmed out annually, under the Indian Abkari[1] laws. The process of distilling is simple. Rotten wet dates are immersed in water until almost disintegrated, after which the mixture is placed in a sort of copper boiler. A pipe passes out of the upper side, through which the steam of the boiling liquid is conveyed into another vessel, which acts as a condenser, cold water being poured on the outside of this receptacle, from which the distilled liquor drops into vessels placed beneath it; the extract thus obtained is re-distilled. This liquor has a far from pleasant flavour, and a still more disagreeable smell; its chief recommenda-

[1] See Part IV., p. 138.

tion is its cheapness, it being sold at 3 annas a bottle. One quart of date liquor is equal in strength to one dram of rum.

(*k.*) *Boat-building.*—The various descriptions of native craft that frequent and ply in Aden harbour are as follows :—

Names.	Description	Remarks.
(*a.*) Zaimah, .	Curved bows ; stern-post slightly raked aft ; mat bulwarks forward ; small deck forward and aft. Larger vessels of this kind carry two masts ; the smaller, one.	Cargo or ballast boats of 2 to 12 tons each.
(*b.*) Sambuk, .	Overhanging stem, slightly curved at the upper part ; small decks forward and aft ; centre part fitted with a temporary bamboo-deck for the conveyance of cattle ; bulwarks raised high round the stem, which is square and slightly overhanging ; two masts raked forward.	Country crafts, 15 to 50 tons each.
(*c.*) Ganjah, .	Long overhanging stem, square stern, with quarter galleries ; two masts raked forward ; lateen sails ; small decks forward and aft ; centre open ; mat bulwarks ; carved stern-head.	Country crafts, from 50 to 70 tons each.
(*d.*) Buggalow, .	Long overhanging stem square stern with quarter galleries ; two masts ; decked all over ; raised poop ; low bulwarks that can be heightened with matting when deeply laden.	Sea-going craft, from 50 to 400 tons.
(*e.*) Kotia, . .	Resembles Ganjah.	Indian sea-going craft, 40 to 150 tons.
(*f.*) Abrî, . .	Long overhanging bows ; mast slightly raked forward. The larger size have generally two masts, and the smaller one. A raised deck aft and light deck forward ; removable mat bulwark ; straight keel ; stem-sharp, and stern-post raking aft.	Small boat of 5 to 15 tons.
(*g.*) Buden, .	Stem and stern posts upright ; straight plank sheer ; a small raised deck aft for the protection of the crew ; rest of vessel open ; a very high rudder post built to and some distance from the stern ; steers by lines to either quarter ; one upright mast.	Fishing boats from 15 to 40 tons.
(*h.*) Batîl, . .	Long sloping stem ; sharp stern with high rudder post ; steers with ropes to either quarter ; no fixed decks ; generally very fine in their lines, and fast sailers ; one mast raked forward.	Ditto, ditto.

Names	Description.	Remarks
(*i.*) Zarugah or Baghârah, . .	Resembles Batil.	Fishing boats from 15 to 40 tons.
(*j.*) Machwah, .	Carved stem and square stern. Smaller size have no decks, and only one mast. The larger size are decked and have two masts; rig lateen.	Ditto, ditto.
(*k.*) Jolly Boats,	Built after the model of an English rowing boat with stronger and heavier frames; workmanship very rough.	Passenger boats licensed to ply in the harbour.
	N.B.—All the above vessels are built and rigged nearly on the same principles. They are carvel built and fastened with iron; their timbers and frames are chosen from wood of which the natural bend suits the lines of the vessels. They are as a rule very fine in their lines, and fast sailers. In bad weather, when they cannot get into shelter, they generally run before the gale under a storm sail. Their rig is lateen, and they are furnished with three sets of sails of different sizes, which they use according to the strength of the wind.	

Boat-building is carried on at the following places:—

Hodaida, Lohaia, Mokha,[1] and Aden, where the Zaimah, Sambuk, Ganjah, and Buggalow are built, and at Zaílah,[2] where the Zaimah and Sambuk only are constructed. The Abrî is built at Makalla,[3] the Budan, Zarugah, or Batîl at Sharjah,[3] and other ports on the south-east coast of Arabia, and in the Persian Gulf. The Kotia and Machwah are of Indian construction.

The jolly-boats that ply in the harbour with passengers are built in Aden.

The country craft that are constructed on the coasts of Arabia and Africa in the neighbourhood of Aden, and in the latter place itself, are built of teak, with ben-teak for the keel and timbers; Maithi wood, which comes from the Somali coast, is used for the ribs, knees, and clamps. The bottom is not coppered, but in order to protect it from the ravages of marine animals, it is coated with a

[1] Turkish Red Sea ports.

[2] Egyptian Dankali port.

[3] Independent port on the south-east coast of Arabia

mixture of chunam (lime) and tallow, or grease. The iron-work (such as nails, etc.) is generally country made. Masts and spars are brought from Malabar, sail-cloth[1] from Persia, rigging fixed and running, generally of coir-rope, is obtained from Zanzibar, Malabar, and Bombay.

Country crafts are built from 1 to 150 tons, and of course, as already described, there is considerable diversity in construction, but the principal point is the manner in which the bottom is made; this varies even in vessels of the same class. Flat bottom, or 'Markâbi,' are used for coasting and harbour purposes; deep, or 'Gilâbi,' for sea-going craft.

Before commencing to build, a craft of the required size is taken as a pattern, and its lines are imitated even to the imperfections. There are about twenty Arabs who employ themselves at Aden in boat-building, where—

Native crafts of 5 tons can be built for 150 dollars.					
Do.	10 to 15	tons	can be built for	400	dollars.
Do.	15 to 30	do.	do.	1000	do.
Do.	50 to 60	do.	do.	3000	do.
Do.	60 to 100	do.	do.	4500	do.
Do.	100 to 150	do.	do.	5000	do.

European Industries.—The European industries carried on in Aden are—(*a.*) Printing and book-binding; (*b.*) Manufacture of soda and other aerated waters; (*c.*) Photography; (*d.*) Water-condensing; and (*e.*) Manufacture of ice.

(*a.*) *Printing and Book-binding.*—There are two printing-presses in the Settlement; one in the jail, which is worked by convict labour, and the other is the property of Messrs. Cowasjee Dinshaw and Brothers, and is located at Steamer Point; both execute the printing work of the various public offices in Aden, in accordance with the rules of Government regarding local presses. A considerable quantity of work is also done for private individuals. Both presses turn out fair average work. In the Aden jail book-binding is carried on, and a few Jews also in the town can bind indifferently well. There is no local newspaper in Aden, the community being too small, and there being but little news of local interest which almost every one has not an equal opportunity of hearing.

(*b.*) *Manufacture of Soda and other Aerated Waters.*—There are

[1] Dankalis use mat for sails

eight factories of aerated waters, all in the hands of private individuals, firms, and regimental messes. Besides the Europeans residing in and visiting the Settlement, Indians and Arabs make free use of these waters during the hot weather.

Soda-water is sold for 1 rupee per dozen; lemonade and tonic for Rs.1½ per dozen. Bottles are imported from Europe.

(*c.*) *Photography.*—There are two depôts, both located at Steamer Point, where portraits are taken by photography; they are, however, but indifferently patronised. Views of the different places of interest in the Settlement and neighbourhood can be obtained, and as they have been taken by an amateur who thoroughly understood the art, they are worth the small sum charged for each copy. An excellent panoramic view of the camp was taken by this artist, and can be purchased for Rs.6 per copy.

(*d.*) *Water-condensing.*—There are six condensers, three of which are the property of firms or companies. The capabilities of these condensers, together with the price of water, has been already noticed under the head of Water Supply.

(*e.*) *Manufacture of Ice.*—Ice is manufactured by two local firms, and is sold to the shipping at £10 per ton, and 1 anna per lb. to the local public. The supply occasionally fails, and when this occurs in the hot season, the deprivation is much felt by all who can afford to indulge in this luxury.

KAFILAH ROUTES.—The rich produce of the highlands of Yemen is brought into Aden by camels, large kafilahs or caravans of which arrive daily from the interior, and, after a few days' rest, again wend their way home with return loads of suitable commodities.

The following list, besides showing the various articles imported into Aden by land, also shows the number of camels that entered the Settlement with merchandise and supplies during 1875-76:—

Articles.	Number of Camels
Coffee,	6,738
Fruits and vegetables,	8,985
Fodder,	61,503
Grain and pulse,	24,782
Water,	71,970
Wood and charcoal,	86,944
Miscellaneous,	6,923
Total,	267,845

Besides the fruit and vegetables, wood, fodder, and water, which arrive from the Akrabi, Abdali, and Fadhli districts, articles of commerce reach Aden by several routes[1] through the territories of other subsidised tribes.

Commencing from the westward, there is, firstly, the Mafâlis route by which the produce of the districts near Mokha and of Hajariya is carried eastward through the territories of the Athwari, Dubaini, Rijai, Akrabi, and Abdali tribes into Aden. Coffee-berries, grain and pulse, fruits, vegetables, and kât are the principal articles that are imported by this route, and dues, varying from three quarters to two dollars per load, are levied by the Athwari, Akrabi, and Abdali tribes.

The next is what is called the Amûr route, which takes its name from a sub-tribe of the Haushabi, who levy dues independently of those collected by the chief of that tribe. Kafilahs start from the neighbourhood of Taizz and pass into the territories of the Amari, and thence to Al-Ghail, where they join the Madrajah or Mawiya routes, which will be hereafter described. Coffee-berries, coffee clean, wax, ghee, bastard saffron, grain, fruits, and kât are the principal articles carried. The taxes levied vary from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ dollars per load, according to the nature of the articles carried.

Branching off from the last-mentioned route, at the borders of the Haushabi district, Kafilahs occasionally turn southwards through the Subaihi country, but the Madrajah route, as it is called, from a town of that name in the Makhdumi territory, is not much used, owing to the risk of attack from the predatory Subaihi tribes, whom no subsidising seems to tempt into peaceful habits, and it is only when the Haushabi chief, as not unfrequently happens, 'cuts off the roads,' as the Arabs say, that the Subaihi country is entered. The Mawiyah route, so called from a town of that name in Turkish territory, passes through the Haushabi and Abdali districts into Aden. The produce of Udain, Jiblah, Ibb, etc., consisting of coffee clean, coffee-berries, wax, ghee, bastard saffron, grain, fruit, kât, and hides, are carried by this route, and dues varying from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ dollars per load are levied by the Haushabi in two places, and the Abdali in one.

The Zhali route, named after a town in the Amîri country, passes southwards through the territories of the Amir, Alawi, Haushabi, and

[1] See Sketch Map.

Abdali tribes. Coffee-berries, coffee clean, wax, ghee, bastard saffron, grain, fruits, madder, etc., from the districts round Sanaa and the north are borne by this road, and dues varying from ¼ to 2½ dollars per load are levied by the Amir, Alawi, Haushabi, and Abdali tribes.

The last remaining route is that called Abyan, from a portion of the Fadhli district through which it passes. The produce of the Yaffai country, consisting of coffee-berries, madder, wax, honey, and grain, arrive by this route, and taxes are paid, varying from ½ to ¾ of a dollar per load, to the Fadhli chief, on goods passing to Shugrah, the sea-port of that district, whence they are exported to Makalla, Shehr, and the Persian Gulf. The Fadhli charges no dues on goods entering Aden.

Taxes are levied by all the above tribes, except the Fadhli, on merchandise, etc., leaving Aden, at the same rates as prevail for goods passing towards the Settlement.

The vexations and delays which the levy of these imposts necessitates on Kafilahs, tend to check the flow of trade into Aden by land, and were it possible, or rather expedient, to compound with other tribes, as has been done with the Fadhli and Subaihi, for the total abrogation of these troublesome dues, no doubt Aden would be in a position to compete with Hodaida, to the great disadvantage of the latter, in the land coffee trade.

The Turks, it is confidently asserted, have recently given out to the Arabs that it is their intention to levy one per cent. on goods entering, and eight per cent. on goods leaving Aden, with the avowed purpose of resuscitating Mokha. The success of any such experiment is doubtful, for a variety of reasons that can hardly be entered into here.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—The geographical position of Aden, the *Romanum Emporium* of old writers, and the *Arabias Emporion* of Ptolemy, always gave it special advantages as an entrepôt, and in earlier times its rulers turned this into account by imposing very heavy imposts. This is well illustrated by the translation of the extract from the Tarikh al Mostabsir given in Part VI.[1] As noticed in the historical précis, the port was constantly changing hands, and no doubt this was due to the rapacity of its successive rulers. Captain Haines, who was the pioneer of British interests and civili-

[1] See *post*, p. 183.

sation in South-western Arabia, says of the place prior to its occupation by the British :—

'It will be a happy circumstance when the merchant and traveller can find easy access to the rich provinces of Yemen and Hadhramaut; when coffee, gums, frankincense, and other valuable produce, will afford a lucrative return for the merchandise of our own country. . . . Aden would thus no doubt be gradually recovered from its present servile indigence, and as it receives from British perseverance the first step towards regaining its former grandeur and celebrity, England may, at the same time, find her own views not deteriorated by the effort.'[1]

How true a prophet Captain Haines has proved the following pages will show. Had that distinguished and accomplished officer foreseen the successful construction of the Suez Canal, he no doubt would have made a still more ecstatic forecast.

After the occupation of Aden in 1839, until the year 1850, customs dues were levied as in India, but the Settlement did not at first fulfil the promise its geographical position warranted in regard to the development of trade, and it was found impossible to divert traffic from its ancient channels, notwithstanding the increased safety to the persons and property of the merchants frequenting Aden.

Mokha and Hodaida continued to monopolise the valuable trade of Arabia and Africa, and to remedy this Aden was declared a free port in 1850 by an Act of the Government of India.

No customs dues of any kind are now levied beyond a transhipment fee of Rs.10 per chest on opium, under Act VI. of 1873.

A small establishment, consisting of a Registrar and a few clerks, under the superintendence of the first Assistant-Resident, is kept up for the registration of trade only, but the Port Fund bears the expense thus incurred, in consideration of the Port and Pilotage dues being also collected by this agency, apart from the value to the port itself of reliable trade statistics being obtained.

During the seven years that preceded the opening of the port, the total value of the imports and exports amounted to Rs.1,30,95,578, giving a yearly average of Rs.18,70,797. In the next seven years the value of the trade aggregated Rs.4,21,97,337, or averaging Rs.60,28,200 per annum.

[1] From a MS. Journal quoted by Forster in his *Historical Geography of Arabia.*

The above does not include the value of the imports and exports carried from and to the interior by land, which in 1858 amounted to four lakhs of rupees. The next period of seven years, that is, up to the middle of 1865, brought the yearly sea-borne trade of the Settlement to the no inconsiderable figure of Rs. 1,13,15,899. It was reserved for the opening of the Suez Canal to fully develop the capabilities of the port, as will appear from the following figures:—

	1870-71.		1875-76.	
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
Imports by Sea, . . .	96,02,339	.	1,59,69,749	
Do. do. Land, . .	13,52,598	..	19,45,555	
Treasure (private), . .	No record.		21,66,766	
		1,09,54,937		2,00,82,070
Exports by Sea, . . .	56,80,865	.	1,11,39,609	
Do. do. Land, . .	8,38,736		10,05,907	
Treasure (private), . .	No record.		23,33,049	
		65,19,601		1,44,78,565
Total Rupees,		1,74,74,538		3,45,60,635
		INCREASE, Rs. 1,70,86,097.		

The trade of Aden therefore has nearly trebled since the opening of the Suez Canal, and it is believed to be still increasing.

It has to be noticed that the above figures do not include the value of merchandise transhipped from one vessel to another without the intervention of a local consignee, and they therefore represent the value of the mercantile business transacted in the Settlement itself. Were it possible to show the value of the goods transhipped at this port either to Europe and America, to the westward; or Natal, Reunion, Seychelles, Zanzibar, Muscat, Persian Gulf, British India, and China, to the eastward, it would be made apparent how commercially important Aden has become. It is difficult to give even an approximate estimate of the number of packages transhipped, and their weight and value it is impossible to ascertain accurately, but from such data as are attainable, the transhipment trade has been calculated to have reached the value of nearly £2,000,000 in 1876-77.

The following table exhibits the total value of the sea import and export trade, exclusive of transhipment during the year 1875-76 :—

Countries.	Total Import, value 1874-75.	Total Import, value 1875-76.	1875-76.	
			Increase.	Decrease.
United Kingdom,	55,30,290	42,33,876	,,	12,96,414
Austria,	1,92,971	2,63,599	70,628	,,
France,	1,86,914	1,77,693	,,	9,221
Italy,	51,343	93,152	41,809	,,
Other countries in Europe,	7,463	33,064	25,601	,,
East coast of Africa,	11,13,172	12,15,533	1,02,361	,,
Zanzibar,	12,99,865	19,68,055	6,68,190	,,
Egypt,	6,58,483	7,01,395	42,912	,,
Mauritius,	88 233	1,24,637	36,404	,,
United States,	1,52,495	3,22,763	1,70,268	,,
Red Sea and Arabian Gulf,	34,97,310	38,65,198	3,67,888	,,
Hong Kong,	20,697	15,021	,,	5,676
Persian Gulf,	4,40,490	5,60,309	1,19,819	,,
Straits Settlement,	4,34,953	3,35,539	,,	99,414
Other countries in Asia,	,,	11,012	11,012	,,
Bombay,	40,95,263	34,69,826	,,	6,25,437
Broach,	4,941	,,	,,	4,941
Calcutta,	5,19,534	3,57,769	,,	1,61,765
Karachi,	,,	6,330	6,330	,,
Madras,	1,316	4,050	2,734	,,
Malabar,	85,499	1,18,726	33,227	,,
Cutch,	3,66,756	2,58,968	,,	1,07,788
Total,	1,87,47,988	1,81,36,515	16,99,183	23,10,656
Net Decrease,	...	...	...	6,11,473

The following is an alphabetical list of the imports and exports :—

Name of Article.	Imported from	Exported to	Remarks.
Animals, living,	African coast, Interior.	..	Consumed at Aden, and supplied to shipping.
Apparel (haberdashery and millinery included).	Europe, India,	Arabia, African coast, Persian Gulf, and Red Sea.	Berbera and Zaila.
Arms and Ammunition :—Gunpowder.	United Kingdom,	..	Local use for sporting purpose.
Books and printed matter.	Bombay, England,	Hodaida, Jiddah,	Imported also for the reading portion of the community (European and native).
Building and engineering materials :—			
1. Asphalt,	Bombay, England,	..	Local use.
2. Tiles,	,,		
3. Cement,	,,		

NAME OF ARTICLE.	IMPORTED FROM	EXPORTED TO	REMARKS.
4. Chalk and lime,	Makalla.		
5. Pumice,	..	Bombay.	
Cabinet ware and furniture.	Bombay, Trieste, .	..	Local use.
Candles, of sorts, .	England, Trieste,	Interior.	
Canes and rattans, .	Singapore, Hodaida,	Hodaida.	
Carriages and carts, .	Bombay, England, France, Trieste, United States.		Local use.
Chemical products and preparations—			
1. Brimstone,	Bombay, England, France, and Italy.	Bilhâf, Lohaia, Shugrah, Interior.	Acids used in the manufacture of aerated waters. Consumed locally.
2. Quinine,			
3. Other sorts.			
Chinese and Japanese ware.	Hong Kong, Japan, Singapore.	..	Exported to different places, in smal' quantities, as curiosities.
Clocks and Watches,	Bombay, England, Trieste, United States.	Hodaida, Interior, Massowa.	Local use.
Coal and Patent fuel, Coke.	England.	..	Supplied to the shipping, and used in the Government and private companies' condensers. Coke is consumed locally.
Coffee, . .	Berbera, Hodaida, Lohaia, Mokha, Yemen, Zaila.	Bombay, China, England, France, Japan, Makalla, Suez, Trieste, United States.	Large quantities of berries are imported from Yemen; the pods or husks are separated at Aden. Berries are also exported to Makalla. The Arabs use the husk in preference to the berry in preparing the beverage they themselves drink.
Coir (unmanufactured)	Malabar.		
Coral (real), . .	Italy, Suez, . .	Bombay, Zanzibar.	
Cordage and Rope (of vegetable fibre).	Bombay, England, Galle, Malabar.	Hodaida, Persian Gulf.	Used by boats plying in the harbour.
Corks, . .	England, France,	..	For local use.
Cotton (raw), . .	Bombay, Cutch, Lohaia, and Muscat.	Interior, Makalla, Massowa.	
Cotton (twist), . .	Bombay, Liverpool, Trieste.	Bilhâf, Hodaida, Mokha, Makalla, Massowa, Shugrah, and Interior.	
Cotton (piece goods),	America (New York), Bombay, England, France, Cutch, Makalla, Muscat, Singapore.	Interior, Ports on the African Coast, Ports in the Red Sea, Ports in the Arabian Gulf, Massowa, Zanzibar.	There is a considerable demand for English grey and dyed goods, as also of American and Bombay manufacture. American shirtings are exported in large quantities to Hodaida and Mokha. White and fancy piece goods are used for local purposes.

NAME OF ARTICLE.	IMPORTED FROM	EXPORTED TO	REMARKS.
Drugs and Medicines,	Bombay, Hodaida, Interior, Malabar, and Persian Gulf.	Interior, Red Sea.	
Dyeing and Colouring Materials— Indigo. Madder. Myraboloms. Waras or bastard saffron. Other sorts.	African Coast, Bombay, Interior, Madras, Mokha.	Bombay, England, Persian Gulf.	
Earthenware and Porcelain, . .	Bombay, England, Singapore.	Arabian Gulf, African Coast, Interior, and Red Sea Ports.	
Feathers, . . .	Bailool, Berbera, Makalla.	Alexandria, England, Suez.	Ostrich feathers are sold to passengers passing through Aden in considerable quantities.
Fireworks, . .	Bombay, China,	Interior.	
Fruits and Vegetables— Cocoa-nut. Wet dates. Raisins. Potatoes. Almonds.	Bombay, Interior, Malta, Mokha, Persian Gulf, Suez, Zanzibar.	African Coast Ports, Bombay, Interior, Red Sea Ports.	Consumed at Aden.
Glass— Sheet and Plate. Beads and false pearls. Bottles. Otherwise.	Bombay, England, France, Trieste.	African Coast, Interior, Zanzibar.	Partly consumed at Aden.
Grain and Pulse— Grain. Rice. Wheat. Pulse. Jowarí. Bajrí.	Bombay, Calcutta, Interior, Karachi, Cutch, Lamu, Lohaia, Persian Gulf, Zanzibar.	African Coast, Bilhâf, Hodaida, Interior, Mokha, Massowa, Shugrah, Bombay.	Grain, wheat, and jowarí imported from Persian Gulf; rice from Calcutta and Bombay; bajrí, jowarí, and wheat from Interior.
Grass and fodder, .	Interior,	..	Brought from Interior on camels for local use.
Gums and Resins— Arabic. Myrrh. Incense. Benjamin. Olibanum. Maithee. Copal. Resin.	African Coast, Berbera, Interior, Makalla, Singapore, Zaila, Zanzibar.	England, France, Suez, Trieste, United States.	
Hardware and Cutlery (including plated ware), .	Bombay, England,	Interior.	For use at Aden.
Hemp (raw), . .	Berbera,	Suez.	
Hides and Skins (raw),	African Coast, Arabian Gulf, Hodaida, Interior, Mokha.	England, France, Genoa, Suez, Trieste, United States.	

NAME OF ARTICLE.	IMPORTED FROM	EXPORTED TO	REMARKS.
Horns (buffalo and antelope).	African Coast, Cutch.	Berbera, Interior, Suez.	
Instruments and Apparatus— Musical. Photographic. Scientific Philosophical, etc.	England, France, Italy	.	For use at Aden.
Ivory— Unmanufactured. Manufactured.	Bombay, Berbera, China, Massowa, Zaila, Zanzibar	Bombay, England, France, New York (United States).	Manufactured ivory is imported from the two last-mentioned places.
Jewellery— Pearls unset. Jewellery (gold and silver) Plate	England, Hongkong, Lohaia, Massowa.	Bombay.	
Jute, Manufacture of— Gunny bags. Rope and twine	Bombay, Calcutta, Hodaida, Lohaia.		Gunny bags from Calcutta and Bombay are used for landing and shipping coals, also in packing coffee for exportation.
Kât, ...	Interior,		The leaves of a kind of tree used by the Arabs as a stimulant, and brought on camels for consumption at Aden.
Leather, Manufacture of— Boots and shoes. Saddlery and harness	Bombay, England, France.		For home consumption.
Liquors— Malt. Spirits. Wine and Liqueurs.	England, France, Gibraltar, Italy, Trieste, Suez, Mauritius.	Berbera, Perim, Zaila, Zanzibar.	Consumed at Aden, and exported to Berbera and Zaila, for the use of Europeans in the Egyptian service
Machinery, . .	England, France,		For use in water-condensers and ice machines at Aden.
Matches— Lucifer and others.	Bombay, England,	African Coast, Interior.	
Mats— China. Other sorts.	Bailool, Bombay, France, Singapore	..	Other sorts of mats are used for making covers for packages, bags of grain, etc.
Metals— Brass. Copper. Iron. Lead. Tin. Zinc or Spelter. Steel.	Bombay, England, France, Singapore	African Coast, Hodaida, Interior, Jiddah, Makalla, Mokha.	
Oils— Cocoa-nut. Gingelly or sweet. Castor. Mineral. Essential oil. Animal.	Bombay, Calcutta, Malabar, United States, Zanzibar.	Bombay, Interior, Red Sea Ports.	For local consumption.

NAME OF ARTICLE.	IMPORTED FROM	EXPORTED TO	REMARKS.
Opium, . . .	Bombay, France, Persian Gulf.	China, England, Reunion, Zanzibar.	Transhipped to the different places (in export column).
Paints and Colours, .	Bombay, Calcutta,	Hodaida.	
Painters' materials, .	England, France,	Interior.	
Paper and Pasteboard,	Bombay, England, France, Trieste, Suez.	African Coast, Hodaida, Makalla, Mokha	For local use also.
Perfumery, . .	England, France, Persia.	.	Consumed at Aden.
Pitch, Tar, Dammar,	Bombay, England,	..	For the use of the shipping.
Provisions— Butter. Ghee. Salted fish. Beef. Oilman's stores. Fruits and Vegetables— Dried, salted, and fresh. Other sorts. Flour. Fish fins and maws.	Arabian Gulf, African Coast, Bombay, France, Interior, Trieste, United Kingdom	Bombay, Berbera, Red Sea Ports, Zaila.	Many of the articles are consumed at Aden, and are also supplied to vessels; ghee in large quantities is imported from Berbera.
Salt, ...	Interior, Mokha,	Berbera, Calcutta, Zaila	For home consumption.
Saltpetre, . . .	Bombay.		
Seeds, . . .	Bombay, Interior, Lamu, Persian Gulf.	Arabian Gulf Ports, Hodaida, Interior, Mokha.	
Shells and Cowries, .	African Coast, Makallah, Massowa.	England, France, Suez, Trieste.	
Silk (raw), . .	Bombay, China, Calcutta.	Hodaida, Interior, Mokha.	
Silk (piece goods), .	Bombay, Calcutta, China.	Hodaida, Interior, Mokha.	
Spices, . .	Bombay, Malabar Coast, Singapore, Zanzibar.	England, France, Hodaida, Interior, Mokha, Trieste.	
Stationery, . .	Bombay, England,	..	For home consumption.
Sugar and Sugar-candy.	Bombay, Calcutta, China, Malabar, Mauritius.	Hodaida, Interior, Mokha.	
Tallow, ...	African Coast, Bombay.	Mokha,	Consumed at Aden for greasing country crafts.
Tea, ...	Bombay, Calcutta, China, Madras.	..	For home consumption.
Telegraph, materials for construction of.	Bombay, England,	..	For the use of the Telegraph Company, Aden

NAME OF ARTICLE.	IMPORTED FROM	EXPORTED TO	REMARKS.
Tobacco— Unmanufactured. Manufactured. Cigars. Other sorts.	Bombay, Cutch, Makalla, Madras, Persian Gulf, Singapore, Suez, United Kingdom, United States.	African Coast, Hodaida, Interior, Mokha, Massowa.	
Toys and requisites for games.	Bombay, England,	..	For local use.
Umbrellas, . .	Bombay, China,	Hodaida, Massowa.	
Wax, . . .	Hodaida, Interior,	Singapore.	
Water (drinking), .	Interior,	..	Brought on camels for consumption at Aden.
Wood and Timber, .	African Coast, Bombay, Malabar, Singapore, Zanzibar.	Berbera, Hodaida, Mokha.	Also for home consumption.
Firewood, . . .	Interior,	..	Brought from the interior on camels for consumption at Aden.
Woollen goods, .	Bombay, Makalla, Persian Gulf, United Kingdom.	African Coast, Hodaida, Mokha, Massowa.	

The various articles that arrive in regard to the country from which imported are given below :—

UNITED KINGDOM.—Apparel, arms, building materials, candles, carriages, clocks, coal and patent fuel, cordage, cotton twist, cotton piece goods, earthenware, glass, hardware, jewellery, leather manufactures, liquors, machinery, matches, metals, paints, paper, perfumery, pitch, provisions, stationery, telegraph materials, tobacco, toys, woollen goods.

AUSTRIA.—Cabinet ware, carriages, clocks, cotton twist, glass, liquor, papers, provisions.

FRANCE.—Candles, carriages, chemical products, cordage, cotton piece goods, glass, instruments, leather manufactures, liquors, machinery, metals, paints, paper, provisions.

ITALY.—Chemicals, coir, instruments, liquors.

OTHER COUNTRIES IN EUROPE.—Fruits, liquors.

EAST COAST OF AFRICA.—Animals, coke, coffee, dyeing materials, feathers, gums, hemps, hides, horns, ivory, mats, provisions, seeds, shells, tallow, and wood.

ZANZIBAR.—Fruits, grain, gums, ivory, oil, spices, wood.

EGYPT.—Fruits, liquors, paper, tobacco.

MAURITIUS.—Liquors, sugar.

UNITED STATES.—Carriages, clocks, cotton piece goods, oils, tobacco.

RED SEA AND ARABIAN GULF.—Building materials, coke, coffee, cotton (raw),

cotton piece goods, drugs, dyeing materials, feathers, fruits, grain, gums, hides, ivory, jewellery and precious stones, jute manufactures, mats, provisions, salt, shells, tobacco, wax, firewood.

CHINA AND JAPAN.—Chinese and Japanese ware, fireworks, ivory manufactures, tea, umbrellas.

PERSIAN GULF AND MUSCAT.—Cotton (raw), cotton piece goods, drugs, fruits and vegetables, grain, seeds, and woollen goods.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.—Canes, Chinese ware, cotton piece goods, earthenware, gums, metals (tin), spices, tobacco, wood.

BOMBAY.—Apparel, books, etc., building materials, cabinet and furniture, carriages, chemicals, clocks, cordage, cotton (raw, twist, piece goods), drugs, dyeing materials, earthenware, fireworks, fruits, etc., glass, grain, hardware, ivory (manufactured), jute (manufactured), leather (manufactured), matches, mats, metals, oils, opium, paints, paper, pitch, provisions, saltpetre, seeds, silk, spices, stationery, sugar, tallow, tea, tobacco, woollen goods.

CALCUTTA.—Grains, jute (manufactured), oils, paints, silk (raw) piece goods, sugar, tea.

MALABAR.—Coin, cordage, drugs, oils, spices, sugar, wood.

MADRAS.—Dyeing materials, tea, tobacco.

CUTCH.—Cotton (raw) piece goods, grain, horns, tobacco.

The various articles exported in regard to the country to which sent are given below :—

UNITED KINGDOM.—Coffee, dyeing and colouring materials, feathers, dates (wet), gum-arabic, myrrh, olibanum, copal and mayeti, hides and skin (raw), ivory, natural curiosities, ambergris (perfumery), shells (mother-o'-pearl), cloves, and treasure (gold).

AUSTRIA.—Cabinet ware and furniture, Chinese and Japanese ware, coffee, drugs and medicines, feathers, gums, myrrh and olibanum, hides and skins (raw), shells (tortoise and mother-o'-pearl), cloves, wax.

FRANCE.—Coffee, senna leaves, gums (arabic and olibanum), hides and skins (raw), shells (mother-o'-pearl), wax, carpets (woollen).

ITALY.—Coffee, drugs and medicines, gum, copal, hides and skins (raw), shells (tortoise and mother-o'-pearl).

OTHER COUNTRIES IN EUROPE.—Coffee.

EGYPT.—Coffee, cotton twist and piece goods, drugs and medicines, feathers, dates (wet), glass beads, gums, resin, myrrh, olibanum, copal, mayeti, benjamin, hemp (raw), jute, manufactured (gunny bags), provision and oilman's stores, shells (tortoise and mother-o'-pearl), spice, cinnamon, ginger, cloves, pepper, cardamom, alla or gurrowood, honey, tobacco (unmanufactured), specie in silver.

ABYSSINIA (MASSOWA AND SOWAKEN).—Apparel, cabinet-ware and furniture, cordage and rope, cotton (raw, twist, and goods), drugs and medicines, dates (wet), glass-beads and bottles, grain and pulse, metals (wrought and unwrought), oils, gingelly, and kerosine, provision (ghee), silk piece goods, spices, cloves, and pepper, sugar, tobacco (unmanufactured), wood (sandal and other timber), woollen piece-goods, and specie in silver.

EAST COAST OF AFRICA.—Apparel, books printed, candles, carts, coal, coffee (husks), cotton (twist and piece-goods), dates (wet), glass-beads, grain and pulse, metal (wrought and unwrought), oils, gingelly, provisions, spices, sugar, tobacco (unmanufactured), timber and wood, woollen blankets.

ZANZIBAR.—Apparel, coffee (clean and husks), cotton piece goods, drugs and medicines, dyeing and colouring materials, glass-beads, liquors, copper coins, tin-slabs, provisions, silk piece goods, spices, pepper, turmeric, and aglawood, tobacco (manufactured), and specie in silver.

MAURITIUS.—Coffee, spices, pepper, turmeric, and specie in gold and silver.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.—Coffee, hides and skins (raw), and gum.

RED SEA AND GULF OF ADEN.—Apparel, books (printed), candles, cabinet-ware, brimstone, coffee (berries and husks), cordage and rope, cotton (raw, twist, and piece goods), drugs and medicines, dyeing and colouring materials, earthen and porcelain ware, fireworks, wet dates, glass-beads, bottles, and otherwise, grain and pulse, gums and resins, horns, jute (gunny bags), and twine, leather (manufactured), metals (iron, copper, lead, steel, tin, zinc or spelter), oils (gingelly, cocoa-nut, and kerosine), paints and colours, papers (writing), perfumery, provisions (ghee), salt-fish, fruits and vegetables, salted or preserved and other sorts of provision, seeds (essential), silk (raw and piece goods), spices (betel-nut, cinnamon, ginger, cloves, pepper, cardamoms, turmeric, and aglawood), sugar and molasses, tobacco (unmanufactured), timber (rafters and other sorts), woollen piece goods, specie in silver.

JAPAN AND JAVA.—Coffee, honey, and wax.

STRAITS AND SETTLEMENTS.—Apparel, books (printed), cotton piece goods, dates (wet), gums, fish fins or maws, ghee and other sorts of provisions, shells (tortoise), silk piece goods, honey, wax, specie in silver.

PERSIAN GULF AND MUSCAT.—Coffee (clean and husks), cotton piece goods, wurras or safflower, grain and pulse, gum, olibanum, mayeti, oils, kerosine, ghee, aglawood, sugar, timber and rafters, specie in silver.

BOMBAY.—Animals, horse, apparel, pumice, carriages, coffee, cordage and ropes, cotton piece goods (American grey), senna leaves, alkali, aloes, madder and other dyes, gum-arabic, myrrh, olibanum, mayeti, and gum, coarse myrrh, hides (raw), ivory, pearls, fish fins or maws, shells (tortoise, mother-o'-pearl, and cowries), silk piece goods, spices, cloves, honey, treasure (gold and silver).

CALCUTTA.—Salt and coffee.

CUTCH.—Coffee (clean and husks), cotton piece goods, dyeing and colouring materials, grain and pulse, gum, gunny bags, mats, metals, paper (writing).

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF COMMERCE.—The following account of the principal articles of import has been collected, and will at least serve to indicate the sources of trade; in some instances the information given may have a value of its own, as not (so far as is known to the writer), having been previously recorded.

These articles are :—

1. Coal and patent fuel.
2. Coffee.
3. Cotton, twist and piece goods.
4. Dyes.
5. Feathers.
6. Gums.
7. Hides and skins.
8. Shells.
9. Silk (raw).
10. Silk (piece goods).
11. Spices.
12. Sugar.
13. Tobacco.

1. *Coal and Patent Fuel.—Coal.*—Coal is imported from the United Kingdom in considerable quantities. During the year 1875-76, 94,033 tons arrived. It is supplied to the shipping at a fairly remunerative price. During the year before mentioned, the average cost per ton was 43s. for coal put free on board. The Welsh and North-country varieties are those preferred. It is brought to Aden now-a-days almost entirely in steamers; but occasionally in sailing ships, both of which arrive in the months of December, January, February, March, and April, generally leaving the port in ballast for the rice ports, under charter-parties made in England. Coal deteriorates much in Aden when left for more than a few months in the sun, especially during June, July, and August, when the hot winds blow, causing the gases to evaporate, and the coal thus loses in quality and weight, becoming light, and so brittle that it crumbles when moved. There are two Companies in Aden which supply coal, and they compete very vigorously for patronage. The large Steam-ship Companies have their own depots. Government purchases from one of the local firms. Barges are held in readiness, loaded with from 50 to 150 tons; these are got alongside of vessels within an hour, more or less, of their arrival, according to whether they happen to be berthed in the inner or outer harbour. One hundred tons can easily be put on board in three hours. Some further information regarding the manner in which vessels are unladen and coaled will be found in Part II., under the head of Occupation.

Patent Fuel.—Patent fuel is imported by the Messageries Maritimes Company for the use of their own vessels. 4922 tons arrived during 1875-76.

In the same year 839 merchant-steamers entered the port, out of which only about fifty did not coal. Besides these, 160 vessels, belonging to the British and foreign Governments, called at Aden, nearly all of which coaled.

2. *Coffee.*—Coffee is imported from the interior of Yemen by land, from Hodaida and the African coast by sea. The coffee that arrives from the interior is brought in on camels; that which comes by sea is carried by country craft. Sometimes coffee arrives in the berry, but more frequently the seed only. The principal districts where it is grown are Jebel Habur, Wadi Shardud, and Wadi Laa, near Lohaia; Boorak, Rahîma, Dus, Safor, and Al-Hajir, near Hodaida; Jebel Kharaz, Jebel Hofash, Haima, and Jebel Habbashi, in Kaukaban; Bani Matar, Bilad Onis, Jebel Habash, Odain, and Ossab, in the district of Sanaa; Bani Hamad, Bani Awadh, in Hajariya. A considerable quantity is also brought from the Yaffai district. The Arabian coffee is known in Aden by the name of 'Jebeli' or Mokha. In Hodaida it is called after the district producing it, as 'Buraki,' from Burak, etc., and there are two sorts, 'Sargi' and 'Sharabi.' Coffee is cultivated in the hilly districts of Yemen, and there are three distinct stages in its culture. First, the preparation of the seed; second, the sowing; and third, the bedding out of the plant. The seed is prepared by removing the shell or pericarp; it is then mingled with wood-ashes, and dried in the shade. Seed thus prepared is frequently purchased by planters, who seek to avoid the trouble of preparation. The seed is planted in prepared beds of rich soil, mingled with manure consisting of cattle and sheep dung. The beds are covered with the branches of trees to protect the young plants from the heat of the sun during October, November, and December. They are watered every six or seven days. After about six or seven weeks the plants are carefully removed from the ground in the early morning, placed in mat-bags and carried to the fields or gardens, which are always in the vicinity of springs of water. The plants are placed in rows, at a distance of from two to three feet from each other, and are watered every fortnight; if necessary, the soil is manured. After about two, or sometimes three, or even four years, the tree begins to yield. Niebuhr, who visited the coffee-mountains of Yemen, near Bulgose, thus describes the gardens as they appeared in the middle of March:—

'The tree which produces coffee is already well known in Europe. It was in flower in Bulgose, and gave forth an agreeable

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odour. The gardens are all constructed (in terraces) one above the other. Some are only watered by the rain, others have, in their highest part, large tanks, whence fresh water is distributed to all the beds, wherein the trees are generally so close together that the sun can hardly penetrate. They told us that the trees which are watered artificially produce fruit twice a year, but that the beans only ripen once, and that those which do not completely mature are not so good as those of the large crop.'[1]

When the berries are ripe, they are plucked from the tree, after which they are dried in the sun. The unhusked berry is called by the Arabs, 'Jafal.' The pericarp is removed by grinding in a stone hand-mill. Coffee is sometimes imported in the berry, and is shelled in Aden, either by mills of the above description, or by European machinery similar to that used by the planters of Ceylon and Malabar. Coffee arrives packed in mat or gunny bags, called 'Garrara,' and is sold by weight. The price at Hodaida is from Rs.260 to Rs.330 the 'Bahar'=$7\frac{1}{2}$ cwts. In Aden it is sold by the 'Farâsilah'=$30\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.

The prices of the various sorts in Aden were as follows in 1876 :—

Coffee Sargi, . . .	$6\frac{1}{4}$	dollars	per farasilah of	$30\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.
Coffee Sharabi, . .	$5\frac{3}{4}$	,,	,,	,, ,,
Bani Awadh, . . .	$5\frac{1}{4}$	,,	,,	,, ,,
Coffee in berries or 'jafal,'	$3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4	,,	,,	of 33 lbs.

Ten maunds of berries yield 5 maunds clean coffee, $3\frac{1}{2}$ shells or pericarps, $\frac{1}{4}$ black and refuse, and $1\frac{1}{4}$ husks.

The shells and husks are used by the Arabs; the former called 'Kashar,' costing from Rs.$1\frac{1}{2}$ to Rs.2 per maund of 28 lbs., and the latter 'Dukah Kashar,' which sells for R.$\frac{1}{4}$ per maund. The uncleaned berry is called 'Bun,' and the cleaned, 'Bun Sâfi.' For exportation it is packed in mat or gunny bags, each package weighing $1\frac{1}{2}$ cwt.,—the average price of a cwt. of clean coffee ready for export being Rs.50 to Rs.53, including cost of cleaning, packing, and carriage to the wharf. The coffee that arrives from the African coast is grown in the neighbourhood of Harrar, about 160 miles south-west of Zaila.[2] It grows in the gardens about the town, in greater quantities among the Western Gallas, and in perfection at Jarjar, a district about seven days' journey from Harrar on the road to Efat. It is cultivated as in Arabia, except that the seed is not prepared in any way for planting, the outer shell only

[1] *Voyage en Arabie*, par C. Niebuhr, vol. i. p. 267.

[2] Burton's *First Footsteps in Eastern Africa*, page 341.

is removed, and the double bean covered with the husk is sown. The plants after bedding out are watered by being occasionally flooded unless rain fall. The coffee produced by artificial irrigation is better than that grown in the more elevated gardens on the hill-sides. There are two descriptions of soil, called respectively 'Wartab' and 'Barakat;' the former is yellow and the latter red in colour. Sowing commences in March, bedding in May, and the crop is gathered in September. The first crop that the tree produces is not allowed to mature, but is plucked and used by the Abyssinians, as are also the dried leaves of the tree. The berry is separated from the husk by pounding in a wooden mortar. It is then cleaned and packed in leathern bags called 'Dabula,' made of the skins of goats. A camel carries two of these skins, which weigh about 1½ cwt. each, and sell at Aden for from $6½ to $7 per 'Farasilah' of 35 lbs. The price at Harrar was in 1876 $15 for 1½ cwt. When Burton visited Harrar in 1854 the price was about $1 per cwt., and the hire for a camel to Berbera is $5. Including freight and duty levied at Zaila, a 'Dabula' of 1½ cwt. costs the person bringing it $21½ to land at Aden, but it is seldom sold at less than from $30 to $35; 50 per cent. being considered by the Somalis and Harraris to be the least profit that should be earned.

The quantity and value of coffee imported from the undermentioned countries in 1875-76 was as under:—

Africa (by sea):	Abyssinia,	189 cwt.	Value	Rs. 7,563
	Zaila, .	2,167 ,,	,,	103,579
	Berbera,	905 ,,	,,	41,738
	Total,	3,261 ,,	,,	Rs. 152,880
Arabia (by sea):	Jiddah, .	255 cwt.	Value	Rs. 10,700
	Hodaida,	38,749 ,,	,,	1,590,701
	Mokha, .	439 ,,	,,	10,198
	Lohaia, .	8,496 ,,	,,	392,575
	Gaizan, .	829 ,,	,,	38,014
	Farsan, .	462 ,,	,,	22,000
	Shugrah, .	328 ,,	,,	9,037
	Total,	49,558 ,,	,,	Rs. 2,073,225

Arabia (by land): Coffee, not in husk, 2203 camel-loads; estimated value, Rs. 385,525, and weight 8762 cwt.
Coffee, in berries, 4535 camel-loads; estimated value, Rs. 453,500, and weight 16,196 cwt.
Total camel-loads 6738; value Rs. 839,025.

The aggregate import trade in coffee amounts to 77,777 cwt.; Rs. 3,065,130 in value.

The quantity and value of coffee exported from Aden during the year 1875-76 to different countries were as under :—

Where Exported.	Coffee Clean.		Berries.		Husks & Refuse.	
	Cwt.	Value.	Cwt.	Value.	Cwt.	Value.
United Kingdom,	15,593	Rs. 8,86,119	..	..	140½	Rs. 3,950
Austria (Trieste),	7,274¼	3,98,779	..	..	..	..
France,	27,635	14,34,131	..	..	108	2,160
Germany,	62½	3,500	..	..	..	..
Holland,	312¼	17,500	..	..	..	..
Italy,	148	7,733	..	..	..	..
Malta,	36½	1,650	..	..	..	..
Spain,	2	120	..	..	..	..
Turkey in Europe,	3	159	..	..	..	..
Massowa,	..	..	..	..	20½	44
Zaila,	..	..	..	..	50	237
Berbera,	..	..	..	..	77	605
Somali ports (other),	1½	72	..	..	20½	380
Zanzibar,	179	7,752	42¼	Rs. 1,130	119½	2,655
Egypt,	515½	26,787	..	..	1,520¾	31,799
Mauritius,	58½	1,463	..	..	..	..
America, U.S.,	4,098	2,21,182	..	..	..	..
Jiddah,	..	..	..	..	8	75
Hodaida,	..	..	..	..	3,079	18,159
Mokha,	..	..	70	1,680	525	4,015
Lohaia,	18½	855	..	..	235	1,747
Gaizan and Kamran,	..	..	..	..	42	224
Arabian Gulf Ports,	49	2,008	5,651	1,35,720	..	..
Muscat,	90½	4,469	..	..	140	2,328
Persia,	12	532	..	..	163	1,967
Java,	22	1,234	..	..	..	..
Perim,	..	..	..	..	8	35
Bombay,	766	37,976	..	..	3½	100
Calcutta,	..	..	..	..	3	40
Cutch,	21	868	..	..	50	1,099
Total,	56,897½	30,54,889	5,763¾	138,530	6,312¾	71,619

(3.) *Cotton Twist and Yarn.*—Twist and yarns are imported from Bombay, the United Kingdom, and Trieste. Mule twist, of the qualities known as Nos. 5, 6, 10, and 20, Bombay made, come from that port. Coloured and water twist, of the qualities known as Nos. 10, 20, 30, and 40, of English make, are imported from the United Kingdom; Turkey-red twist, Nos. 30 and 40, is imported from Trieste, and is exported in considerable quantities to Massowa, whence it is sent to Suakin. The imports and exports during 1875-76 are shown in table on next page.

Twist is sold by bundles of 5 and 10 lbs. each, called by the Arabs 'Tabbal.' It is packed in bales of 300 lbs.; a bale of Turkey-red weighs 250 lbs. The average prices of the various qualities are as under :—

Turkey-red,	No. 40,	@ Rs. 8	per bundle of	5 lbs.	
Do.	No. 30,	do. 7½	do.	do.	
Do.	No. 20.	do. 7¼	do.	do.	
Water Twist,	No. 10, English,	do. 5	do.	of 10 lbs.	

Mule Twist,	No. 10,	Bombay,	@ Rs. 4 to $4\frac{3}{8}$	per bundle of	10 lbs.
Do.	No. 6,	do.	do. $3\frac{7}{8}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$	do.	do.
Do.	No. 5,	do.	do. $3\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$	do.	do.
Do.	No. 20,	do.	do. $5\frac{1}{16}$ to $5\frac{1}{4}$	do.	do.

TABLE SHOWING THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF COTTON TWIST AND YARN DURING 1875-76.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
COUNTRIES.	QUANTITY.	COUNTRIES,	QUANTITY.
United Kingdom, .	120,250	Massowa, . . .	44,550
Trieste, . . .	14,360	Hodaida, . . .	236,180
Bombay, . . .	1,124,165	Mokha, . . .	256
		Makalla and Shehr, .	17,930
		Interior of Arabia, .	699,664
Total Imports, .	1,258,775	Total Export, .	1,098,580

Cotton Manufactured Piece Goods.—The principal kinds imported are grey or unbleached, white or bleached, coloured, printed and dyed. These goods arrive from the following countries, and of the descriptions named :—

GREY :—	
Shirtings, ...	Bombay, England, and America.
Long cloths, ...	Bombay, England, and America.
T. cloths, ...	Bombay, England, and America.
Domestics, ...	Bombay, England, and America.
Drills, ...	America and England.
Sheetings, ...	America, England, and Bombay.
Dhuties or Lungies, . .	Bombay and England.
WHITE :—	
Shirtings and long cloths, .	Bombay, England, Singapore.
Striped and figured shirtings, .	Bombay and England.
Brocades, ...	Bombay.
Dresses and garments, . .	Bombay and England.
Madapollams and Jacconets, .	Bombay and England.
Mulls, ...	Bombay and England.
Nets and Gauze, . . .	Bombay.
Dhuties, ...	Bombay and England.
Scarfs and Chudders, . .	Bombay, England, and Cutch.
Handkerchiefs, . . .	Bombay and England.
COLOURED, PRINTED, OR DYED :—	
Mulls, Turkey-red, . . .	Bombay and Singapore.
Dyed Shirtings and Jacconets, .	Bombay.
Saaries, dyed, ...	Bombay.
Printed Shirtings and Chintzes,.	Bombay and England.
Do. Muslins, . . .	Bombay and England.
Do. Saaries, . . .	Bombay and England.
Do. Handkerchiefs, . .	Bombay and England.
Ginghams and Tickens, . .	Bombay.
Scarfs and Chadders, . .	Bombay and Cutch.

Indian hand-made cotton goods are imported from Surat and Cutch. These consist of hudnees, chudders, lungees, turbans, and waistbands. Bombay machine-made goods are imported in pieces of 72 yards in length, and in various widths, as under :—

26	inches wide,	weighing	14 to 15 lbs.
27	do.	do.	16 lbs.
30	do.	do.	17 to 18 lbs.
32	do.	do.	19, 20, and 21 lbs.
36	do.	do.	22 to 23 lbs.
40	do.	do.	24 lbs.
45	do.	do.	25 to 32 lbs.

The 14, 15, and 16 lbs. shirtings are exported to Zaila, and Harrar in the Galla country; the 17 and 21 lbs. to Berbera and Somali country; and the heavier kinds to Hodaida. Somalis and Arabs prefer Bombay manufactured cotton goods. They believe that the starch, etc., used in sizing Manchester goods destroys the fabric; bales, when left unopened for a few months, are often found to be mildewed, or covered with large patches. The wholesale price fluctuates with the rates ruling in the English and Bombay markets. The retail price of English-made goods, when disposed of in large quantities, is from 7½ to 8 annas per lb., and from ½ to 1 anna per lb. more is asked in small sales. Bombay-made goods are sold at 9 annas per lb.

Grey long cloths, English, 8½ lbs.; a piece of 39 yards is sold for Rs.5. Grey drill, English, 14 to 15 lbs.; 40 yards, Rs.6½.

American piece goods are sold in bales of 750 yards. Grey American shirtings, 36 inches wide, distinguished by the name of six-strings, are sold at from $60 to $64, and that of five-strings, 30 inches wide, from $48 to $50.

Grey American drill (40 yards piece), fetches 3¼ annas per yard.

The table on p. 106 exhibits the quantities of piece goods imported and exported from and to various countries in 1875-76.

(4.) *Dyes.*—The following dyes are imported :—

Madder, Indigo, and Bastard Saffron *Madder or Munjeet.*—The root of the Rubia Tinctorum and Munjista, which grows in Arabia, is imported by sea from Hodaida, Shugrah, and Bilhaf; and also by land from the interior. It is called 'Fuwah' by the Arabs. Large quantities are exported to Cutch, Bombay, Zanzibar, and Makalla. It is sold at Aden at from Rs.4 to Rs.5 per Surat maund of 42 lbs., according to the quality.

The imports and exports during 1875-76 are shown in the table on page 107.

TABLE EXHIBITING THE QUANTITIES OF PIECE GOODS IMPORTED AND EXPORTED TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES IN 1875-76.

COUNTRIES.	GREY COTTON PIECE GOODS.	COLOURED, PRINTED, AND DYED.	WHITE.	AMERICAN GREY.
IMPORTS.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.
United Kingdom,	4,894,184	39,086	198,580	1,569,041
America,	1,780,435	..	.	..
France,	..	1,500 pairs	..	..
Trieste,	..	203 ,,	..	..
Italy,	..	2,300 ,,	..	Coloured, etc.
Hodaida,	..	18,114 yards	..	3,274 pairs
Makalla,	..	104,135 ,,	..	29,018 ,,
Batavia,	..	28,800 ,,	..	..
Muscat,	..	..	..	812 ,,
Singapore,	9,800	142,620 ,,	76,572	654 ,,
Bombay,	3,637,749	2,066,483 ,,	433,126	..
Do. pairs	33,249	149,348	22,986	..
EXPORTS.				
Massowa, yards	228,965	310,837	103,450	750
Do. pairs	33,594	36,238	50,562	..
Dankali coast, yards	104,158	76,139	..	..
Do. pairs	..	2,518	..	..
Zaila, yards	759,382	157,068	25,912	9,040
Do. pairs	15	8,864	15	..
Berbera, yards	2,084,813	60,555	608	20,599
Do. pairs	22	3,130		..
Other Somali ports, yards	322,133	5,498	40	..
Do. pairs	..	1,157	.	70,495
Zanzibar and adjacent countries, yards	94,928	61,040	..	7,500
Do. pairs	..	8,150	..	..
Egypt, yards	19,500	..	..	..
Jiddah, yards	10,000	..	1,200	..
Hodaida, yards	1,578,972	107,005	79,430	2,047,908
Do. pairs	367	55,714	519	..
Mokha, yards	101,422	3,664	1,080	446,350
Do. pairs	..	460	..	..
Lohaia, yards	3,152	900	1,160	3,750
Do. pairs	..	..	85	.
Gaizan, yards	2,847	..	840	..
Do. pairs	..	20	..	..
Arabian ports in the Gulf of Aden, yards	1,096,922	794,184	52,963	382,276
Do. pairs	..	3,171	348	..
Muscat, yards	6,040	2,160	1,280	3,750
Do. pairs	..	121	..	..
Persia, yards	38,240	..	2,000	..
Singapore, yards	1,200	6,000	..	14,250
Do. pairs	..	90	..	..
Perim, yards	4,374	40	240	..
Do. pairs	..	10	..	..
Bombay, yards	8,232	4,226	..	94,356
Cutch, yards	3,442	11,336	..	15,500

Indigo.—Indigofera Tinctoria (Arabic Nil). Indigo plants grow in abundance in Arabia, and also in Africa, but the natives of those countries do not manufacture much dye. In the Somali country the plant is called 'Gubuldi.' Indigo is manufactured in Mokha, and imported into Aden in small quantities; that made in Mokha is of

a very inferior quality. The best is imported from Madras. The mode of preparation in Mokha is as follows:—The plant is immersed in water for two or three days, after which it is pounded with a wooden club, and allowed to stand in the vat until the remains of the plant, in a pulverised state, sink to the bottom. The value of Mokha indigo during 1876 was Rs.20 per maund of 28 lbs., and that of Madras was Rs.50.

TABLE EXHIBITING IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF DYES DURING 1875-76.

PLACE.	CWT.	RUPEES.
IMPORTS.		
Hodaida,	462	5,225
Bilhaf and Shugrah,	343	5,132
Interior by land,	1,570	23,550
Total,	2,375	33,907
EXPORTS.		
Makalla,	75	1,228
Zanzibar,	108	1,646
Bombay,	261	3,645
Cutch,	1,467	21,860
Total,	1,911	28,379

'*Waras*' or *Bastard Saffron*.—Grows in Harrar and in Yemen (Arabia). From the former place it is brought to Berbera and Zaila, whence it is imported to Aden; from the latter it is brought by land. In Arabia, the plant from which 'Waras' is obtained grows to the height of the cotton-tree, and yields a bean of the size and shape of gingelly or sesame, which, when ripe, is plucked and dried in the shade. While drying, the bean opens at one end, and a red fecula or powder is shaken out; this is called 'Waras.' The seeds are sown with jowarî in April and May, and the plant reaches its full growth by the time the jowarî is ready for harvest. In September and October the beans ripen, and the 'Waras' is obtained as above described. From information collected from the natives of Harrar, where the African 'Waras' is produced, the tree is said to be larger than the Arabian species, and yields a fruit resembling the coffee-berry, but more flat, which is plucked and dried in the sun. The berry becomes red when dried, and a powder is then

separated from the upper cover of the berry by slightly tapping it with a stick. It would appear, therefore, that the Arabian and African plants are of different species, as the 'Waras' produced in the former country is obtained from the inside of the bean, and in the latter from the outside. It is exported to Persia and Zanzibar in large quantities, where it is used for anointing the skin as a protection against malarious fever. It is sold by the pound, which costs about Re.$\frac{3}{4}$ to Re.1.

The imports and exports were as follows in 1875-76:—

Place.	Quantity.	Value.
Imports.	Lbs.	Rupees.
Zaila,	4,490	5,087
Berbera,	1,244	1,466
Hodaida,	100	100
Mokha,	260	200
Shehr and Makalla,	126	192
Interior,	23,000	23,000
Total,	29,220	30,045
Exports.		
Zanzibar,	320	640
Jiddah,	50	50
Hodaida,	90	90
Shehr and Makalla,	5,819	6,119
Muscat,	34,232	35,093
Persia,	2,464	2,788
Total,	42,975	44,780

(5.) *Feathers.*—Ostrich feathers are imported from the Somali and Dankali coasts. Feathers are also brought by the Somalis from the neighbourhood of Ras Hafoon to Shehr and Makalla, whence they are imported into Aden. The feathers that arrive are of three colours,—white, brown, and black; they are not obtained by any regular system, such as exists at the Cape of Good Hope; they are plucked from the bird after death. The best description are the wing and tail feathers, they being obtained from the male bird. Live birds frequently arrive, and three were presented to H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, on the occasion of his visit in November 1875. The lower classes of Somalis eat the flesh of the ostrich, and it is considered derogatory to keep tame birds for breeding purposes. It is but seldom that the hunters themselves reach Aden; they dis-

pose of their feathers to other tribes, receiving in exchange rice, jowarî, or cloth. The mode of capture is as follows:—

A female domesticated bird is taken out by the hunter, and when another ostrich is seen in the distance, the man conceals himself as well as he can under the wing of the decoy, and endeavours to approach the wild bird, which usually displays no fear. When the hunter is sufficiently near, he shoots his game with a poisoned arrow, and plucks it immediately.

The feathers are carefully packed in skins, being first made up into bundles of different sizes, brown, black, and white being kept separate. Large white feathers uncleaned are sold at from Rs.300 to Rs.400 per pound, equal to eighteen German crowns in weight.[1] No allowance is made for the string with which the feathers are tied. Brown are sold at from Rs.24 to Rs.30 per pound. Black at from Rs.14 to Rs.16 per pound.

For exportation they are packed in cases covered with gunny, and are sent to England, France, and Egypt. The feathers that are sold to passengers are cleansed by two processes. First, by immersing the feather in lime-water to destroy the animal oil, after which it is dried in a well-ventilated room in a current of air. Second, by washing the feather well with white soap, and drying as above. The business of feather-cleaning is entirely in the hands of the Jews, who make a great mystery of the above simple processes, which, however, are not so easily accomplished as might be imagined. For retail sale the feathers are made into bundles of four, a good one being generally placed at the top and bottom. These bunches are sold at the following prices:—

Best white,	Rs.20 to	Rs.30	per bunch.
Medium „	16 to	20	„
Inferior „	8 to	16	„
Best grey,	4 to	8	„
Medium „	1 to 4		„
Black feathers,	2 to	8	„

Muffs and boas are made of small black and brown feathers, that have been injured in the cleaning.

In a recent work on Ostriches and Ostrich-hunting by Messrs. J. de Mosenthal and J. E. Hasting, nothing is said of the feathers sent from Aden. In a Consular report furnished from Egypt to this edition, it is written: 'Small quantities are occasionally shipped direct to Europe *viâ* Aden, but their value is insignificant compared

[1] Wholesale.

with the quantities forwarded to Cairo.' Now it will be seen that the reverse is the case, not one-sixtieth part of the feathers exported to Europe from Aden being sent to Egypt. Of course this was probably the fact before the opening of the Suez Canal, Egypt possibly taking credit for the Overland transhipment trade. Unfortunately time does not allow of the many inquiries which would elucidate the feather trade.

The quantity of feathers imported and exported in the year 1875-76, with value, was as under:—

Imported.	Imports.		To where	Exports.	
	Quantity	Value		Quantity	Value.
	Lbs.	Rupees.		Lbs	Rupees
Zaila, . .	214	8,028	United Kingdom,	5,211	115,658
Other Dankali Ports,	129	4,060	Trieste, . .	272	4,110
Berbera, . .	2,075	73,837	Egypt, . .	119	2,480
Other Somali Ports,	2,137	40,548	Bombay, .	½	81
Zanzibar, . .	13	322			
Hodaida, . .	5½	1,650			
Makalla and Shehr,	835	23,986			
Perim Island, .	2	80			
Total,	5,410½	152,511	Total,	5,602¼	122,329

(6.) *Gums and Resins.*

General description.—The principal gums imported and exported are:—

Gum-arabic, Frankincense, Myrrh, Gum-Mastic, Copal, Benjamin, Aloe (Socotra), and Dragon's-blood.

Much gum arrives from the African coast, as also from the south coast of Arabia, and is exported to Bombay, United Kingdom, Suez, Trieste, and France. The Somalis divide all gums into two classes, sweet and bitter,[1] the former including Gum-arabic, Mastic, and Frankincense; and the latter, Myrrh of various kinds, and other gums not imported, such as 'Hodthai,' used by the Somal as soap, etc.

There are four species of Acacia which produce gum-arabic, and four of the Boswellia from which frankincense is obtained. In some cases the trees are cut in order to allow the gum to exude, in others the process takes place naturally. The hotter the season, the more gum is obtained. If the bark be incised more than five or six times in one season the tree dies. In the country of the Yaffai, and other districts in the south of Arabia, Somalis gather incense

[1] Miles.

on the ranges of hills parallel to the coast, but farther eastward, in the vicinity of Ras Morbat, Dhafâr, Ras Fartak, etc., it is collected by the inhabitants of the district. In the Mahara country the tree is called 'Magharah,' and the gum 'Shîhaz.' Arabian is inferior in quality to African gum, and the latter is termed 'Asli.' The sweeter sorts, Arabic and Mastic excepted, are used for chewing as well as for incense. Interesting particulars regarding African and Arabian gums will be found in the Journal of the Bombay branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, volume ii. (1848, Carter); Transactions of the Bombay Geographical Society, vol. vii. (1846, Cruttenden); Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, vol. xlii. (1872, Miles).

Gum-arabic (*Arabic 'Samagh'*).—This gum is obtained from the Acacia Arabica, Vera, Tortilis, and Ehrenberghii. It is imported from Berbera, Zaila, Karam, and Antarad on the African, and Shehr and Makalla on the Arabian coast. The Arabian gum is exported to Bombay direct from the two latter ports, and consequently but little reaches Aden. The African gum arrives mixed from different places, and is divided for commercial purposes into the following varieties and qualities:—

General name—'Samagh.'

Varieties.

Berberi.	Souâkini.
Qualities.	
1. Karami.	Samagh Souâkini.
2. Adad.	
3. Failki.	
4. Jairî.	
5. Wadi.	
6. Jig.	

That denominated Berberi comes from the Somali coast, and is gathered from trees on the ranges running parallel to the Gulf of Aden. The Souâkini arrives direct from Massowa, and is the produce of Souâkin. 'Jig' and 'Wadi' are hard, brittle, and of inferior quality; the latter is red in colour, and possesses none of the starchy qualities of gum. Gum-arabic, after being cleaned and sorted, is exported to the United Kingdom, the inferior sorts being sent to Bombay, where it is sold to dyers and mixed with the Indian gum called 'Ghati.' Gum from the African

coast arrives in skins or 'Kirbah,' as they are called; Arabian gum is packed in mat bags. The average weight of a 'Kirbah' is ¼ cwt. Gum is sold by the 'Bahar' of 2 cwt., and also by the maund of 28 lbs.

In 1876 the market value of the various kinds was:—

Adad,	$2 to $2 1/4[1]	per 28 lbs.
Karami,	2 1/2	,,
Jairí,	1 3/4 to 2	,,
Jig,	1 to 1 1/4	,,
Failki,	2	,,
Wadi,	1 to 1 1/8	,,

The quantity imported and exported in 1875-76 was as under:—

Place.	Quantity.	Value.
Imports.	Cwt.	Rs.
Massowa,	1,637	19,708
Zaila,	131	1,891
Berbera,	1,250	15,929
Other Somali Ports,	306	3,929
Lohaia,	6	120
Arabian Ports in the Gulf of Aden,	32	416
Total,	3,362	41,993
Exports.		
United Kingdom,	1,236	36,186
France,	7 1/2	200
Turkey,	3 1/2	57
Hodaida,	26 3/4	406
Mokha,	53	467
Muscat,	4	48
Singapore,	1 1/4	13
Bombay,	1,594	34,809
Calcutta,	1	12
Cutch,	165	2,088
Total,	3,192	74,286

Frankincense, Gum Olibanum (*Arabic 'Luban'*).—This gum is derived, *so far as is known*, from five different species of trees—

Boswellia Papyrifera,[2] 'Mohr Madow' of Somal.
Carterii, ,, ,,

[1] $ represents a dollar=Rs. 2 as. 2.

[2] There is considerable doubt as to whether the 'Mohr Madow' is the Boswellia Papyrifera.

Thurifera, 'Maghârah Shihaz' of Mahari country, 400 miles east of Aden.
Frereana, 'Yegaar of Somal.'
Bhau Dajiana, 'Mohr Add' of Somal.
Boido tree of Somal.[1]

It grows on the limestone ranges in Warsangali and Mijjertayn countries on the Somali coast, and on the south coast of Arabia. The 'Mohr Add' yields 'Luban Shehri,' the 'Mohr Madow' exudes 'Luban Badawi;' 'Maieti,' or 'Maiti,' is obtained from the Yegaar tree. 'Maghârah Shihaz' produces 'Luban Dthafâri.' The 'Boido' is a somewhat taller species of tree, and its gum runs down in long tears, hence the name. The 'Mohr Add' and 'Madow' are found farther inland than the other species.

This gum is named, after the country producing it, as 'Dthafâri,' from Dthafâr, a district in the south-east of Arabia; 'Barajami,' from 'Bar Ajam,' the usual name for the Somali coast; 'Luban Shehri,' however, is not grown in the neighbourhood of Shehr, but is brought thither from the African coast. There are three qualities of 'Luban,' viz., 'Fusus,' 'Safi,' and 'Jandal.' It arrives in semi-transparent, pear-shaped drops or tears, less than one inch long, and of a yellowish or pale brown colour. The finer descriptions consist of nearly colourless tears.

There are two qualities of 'Maieti,' viz., 'Amshot' and 'Duka.' It arrives in large milky-white flakes or coagulated lumps.

The gum is usually brought packed in wooden cases or baskets, formed like cages and covered with matting, called by the Somal, 'Hori.' Sometimes mat bags are used. It is cleaned and sorted for exportation. Arabs chew frankincense, and also burn it as incense, of which they are extravagantly fond.

The market value of this gum in 1876 was as under :—

'Luban'	'Fusus,'	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$	per 28 lbs.
	'Safi,'	1	„
	'Jundal,'	$\frac{3}{4}$	„
'Maieti'	'Amshot,'	2	„
	'Duka,'	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$	„

The quantity imported and exported in 1875-76 was as follows :—

[1] Scientific name not known.

Place.	Olibanum.		Maieti.	
Imports.	Cwt.	Rupees.	Cwt.	Rupees.
Berbera,	½	2	...	...
Other Somali Ports,	3,278	41,888	1,538	19,681
Shehr and Makalla,	1,360	15,414	390	3,955
Persia,	4½	52	..	...
Singapore,	4	48	...	...
Total,	4,646¾	57,404	1,928	23,636
Exports.				
United Kingdom,	212½	5,794	250	7,493
Trieste,	766¼	16,316	...	...
France,	12½	125	...	...
Massowa,	46	216	¾	4
Dankali Coasts,	13½	99	52	264
Zaila,	59	360	76	386
Zanzibar,	52	327	...	..
Egypt,	494	7,039	796	14,787
Jiddah,	395	4,385	413	2,598
Hodaida,	337	4,335	299	4,182
Mokha,	8	32	...	...
Lohaia,	7½	32	...	...
Gaizan,	...	...	38	256
Arabian Ports in the Gulf of Aden,	31	338	2	12
Muscat,	7	70	10	90
Persia,	36	448	38	302
Singapore,	6	60	...	...
Bombay,	1,793	24,581	170	1,700
Cutch,	12	168	...	...
Total,	4,241¾	64,725	2,144¾	32,074

Myrrh.—But little is accurately known to botanists regarding the tree from which this gum is obtained. It has been classified as Balsamodendron Myrrha and B. Ehrenbergianum.[1] It is brought to Aden from the Somali and Arabian coasts. Two trees produce myrrh, viz., 'Didthin' and 'Habaghadi' of the Somal. The first is common to Arabia and Africa, while the latter is found only in Ogadain and in the districts round Hanar. The gum of the 'Didthin' is called 'Mulmul' by the Somal, 'Mûr' by the Arabs, and 'Hirabol' by the Indians. This tree is also found in Arabia, in the provinces of Yemen, Hadhramaut, and probably the southern portion of Oman. In Africa it is found on the range of hills which runs parallel to the Somali coast. True myrrh is exported to the

[1] *Pharmaceutical Journal*, April 19, 1873 (D. Hanbury, F.R.S.)

United Kingdom, and 'Habaghadi' only to Bombay. Myrrh (true) comes in dark red-coloured round lumps two inches and upwards in diameter; it is sold at from $5 to $5½ per Berbera Farâsilah of 32 lbs. Besabol or 'Habaghadi' costs $2 to $2½ a leather package called 'Jild,' weighing from 40 to 50 lbs.

The imports and exports in 1875-76 were :—

Country.	Cwt.	Rupees.
Imports.		
Zaila,	10¼	428
Berbera,	357	14,269
Other Somali ports,	142¼	5,725
Zanzibar,	19	666
Shehr and Makalla,	455	16,880
Total,	983½	37,968
Exports.		
United Kingdom,	505	45,501
Trieste,	47	2,026
Egypt,	149	6,065
Hodaida,	4	160
Muscat,	24	960
Bombay,	710	22,292
Total,	1,439	77,004

Mastic.—This gum is yielded by the Pistacia lentiscus and Pistacia vera, the former being indigenous in Egypt, and the latter in Persia. Mastic also comes from the Somali coast. But small quantity of this gum arrives; it is used by the Arabs as a medicine. The value of Egyptian or 'Sooltani Mastaka,' as it is called, is from Rs.6 to Rs.7 per maund, and of Persian or 'Ajami,' Rs.5 to Rs.6 per maund of 28 lbs. Somali is very inferior.

Copal, called in Arabic 'Farah' or 'Sandarus,' is imported from Zanzibar in considerable quantities for re-exportation. It is found on the island of Zanzibar and the neighbouring mainland. Burton thus describes its origin:—'The true or ripe copal, popularly called "Sandarusi," is the produce of vast extinct forests; . . . the gum, buried at depths beyond atmospheric influence, has, like amber and similar gum-resins, been bitumenised in all its purity, the volatile principles being fixed by moisture, and by the exclusion of external air. . . . That it is the produce of a tree is proved by the discovery of pieces of gum imbedded in a touch-

wood, which crumbles under the fingers. The "goose skin," which is the impress of sand or gravel, shows that it was buried in a soft state, and the bees, flies, gnats, and other insects which are sometimes found in it, delicately preserved, seem to disprove a remote geological origin.'[1]

The value in Aden is as under :—

1st sort, at $15 per maund of 28 lbs.
2d sort, at 8 per maund of 28 lbs.
3d sort, at 5 per maund of 28 lbs. in small pieces.

In 1875-76, 352½ cwt. were imported from Zanzibar, valued at Rs.40,516, which were exported to the United Kingdom and Italy in nearly equal proportions.

Benjamin.—Styrax Benzoin is called by the Arabs 'Jawi,' and is imported from China and the Straits Settlements. It is used as incense, and is sold at from $7 to $10 per maund of 28 lbs. A small quantity is exported to the Arabian Red Sea ports. The total imports in 1875-76 amounted to 913 cwt., valued at Rs.34,636.

Aloe Socotra.—The juice of the leaves of the Aloe Socotrina is imported from Socotra *viâ* Makalla and Shehr, as also from Douan, in Hadhramaut and the vicinity of Sanaa in Yemen. It arrives in both a semi-liquid and solid state in skins, and is sold at Rs.7 per 28 lbs. for Socotra, and Rs.5 per 28 lbs. for Arabian gum.

Dragon's Blood.—A tree yielding the Sanguis Draconis (*Pterocarpus Draco*[2]) grows in Socotra[3] on the tops of the hills. It arrives in but small quantity, and is exported to Bombay. The value is Rs.14 to Rs.20 per maund.

(7.) *Hides and Skins.*—There are five different varieties of this article of commerce imported into Aden :—

(*a.*) Hides, oxen (raw).
(*b.*) „ camel „
(*c.*) Skins, goat „
(*d.*) „ sheep „
(*e.*) „ kid, „

(*a.*) Hides, oxen (raw), are imported from Massowa, Zaila, Berbera, Gaizan (Red Sea), and the interior of Arabia.

(*b.*) Hides, camel (raw), are received from Berbera and the interior of Arabia.

(*c.*) Skins, goats (raw), are imported from Bailool, Edd, Raitha,

[1] *Lake Regions of Central Africa*, vol. ii. p. 403 *et seq.*
[2] Welsted.
[3] Also in Hadhramaut and the Somali country.

Tajurra, Zaila (all Dankali ports), Berbera, Jiddah, Konfidah, Lohaia, Mokha, Makalla, and the interior of Arabia.

(*d.*) Skins, sheep (raw), and skins, kid (raw), arrive from the Dankali and Somali ports.

The skins of the cattle, goats, and sheep slaughtered in Aden for food purposes are also cured and exported. The number of live stock that arrived during the year 1875-76 was, goats and sheep, 63,262, and of cattle 1104.

The hides and skins have the inner side rubbed with salt, after which they are pegged out and dried in the sun; they are then folded, with the salted side outwards, and packed in mats, each package containing ten score, or, as they are called locally, 'Korjah.' Some of the skins are partially tanned by dipping in salt water and scraping with the hand; they are then coloured by immersion in a decoction of bark. The value of hides and skins is calculated by weight; the heavier being the dearer. A good hide imported from Zaila weighs from 8 to 12 lbs. Goat skins weigh from 3 to 4 lbs. each. Sheep skins are lighter. Hides were formerly sold by number, twenty of fair quality fetching from Rs.40 to Rs.50,—latterly they have been sold by weight. A Zaila 'Farâsilah' is equal to 35 lbs., costing $3 or Rs.6$\frac{3}{5}$. Skins are still sold by number; good skins being worth about Rs.10 per score, and those of sheep and kids from Rs.4 to Rs.6 per score. Camel skins are sold by the number, and fetch Rs.2 each, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ per 'Farâsilah.'

Besides the above, the skins of panthers, lions, zebras, and monkeys, are imported and sold to passengers and others as curiosities. Hides and skins are exported to the following countries:—United States, United Kingdom, Trieste, Genoa, and Egypt.

The following quantities were exported during the year 1875-76:—

Place.	Hides.		Skins.	
	No.	Cwt.	No.	Cwt.
United Kingdom, ...	12,895	991	82,000	1,163
France, ...	2,410	145	488	7$\frac{1}{2}$
Trieste, ...	50,678	3,610	40,455	506$\frac{3}{4}$
Genoa, ...	4,630	371	940	10
Egypt, ...	10,410	812	10,080	116

(8.) *Shells.*—The different kinds of shells imported into Aden are, (*a.*) Mother-o'-Pearl; (*b.*) Tortoise; (*c.*) Nakhla; (*d.*) Cowries.

(*a.*) *Mother-o'-Pearl* (Meleagrina margaritifera) is imported in considerable quantities from the Red Sea and the Somali coast. The fishing in the Red Sea is carried on by Arabs from the ports of Farsan, Kamran, Lohaia, and Jiddah, and on the African coast by the inhabitants of Soor, and other places between that port and Shehr. The boats used in the Red Sea fishery are from 20 to 80 tons burthen. They have a crew of from thirty to fifty men, three-fourths of whom are divers, and the remainder seamen. The crew are sharers in the profits of the fishing, which is carried on between the months of March and December. About one-fifth of the earnings go to the owner, and the remainder, after deduction of 4 per cent. on account of provisions supplied, is divided among the crew, who receive advances for the support of their families during their absence.

The boats are furnished with a scaffolding of rafters, bamboos, and reeds, on each side. The divers work by turns under water. As soon as the shells are brought up, the valves are opened, and the fishy part removed. On the Somali coast the method of fishing is somewhat similar; but the boats used are smaller, and the crews have but small share in the profits, the Nacodas being themselves the owners; neither are the boats so well equipped or provisioned. The 'Zarugah,'[1] 'Baghârah,' and 'Batîl,' are the description of craft used.

Shells are sold in Aden as a rule by the candy, equal to 20 'Farâsilahs' of 32 lbs. each. Sometimes they are disposed of with the sand and carbuncles still attached to them, by the boat-load; otherwise they are cleaned and sold by the weight as above. In 1875 the demand for mother-o'-pearl was so great, that a candy of clean shells fetched from Rs.250 to Rs.300; but the price has since gone down, and now averages Rs.175 for the same quantity.

(*b.*) *Tortoise-shell* is imported from the Red Sea and Somali coast. The shell is not really that of the tortoise, but consists of the scales of the carapace or shield of the hawksbill turtle (Caretta imbricata and Chelonia imbricata). There are four kinds of this marine animal which furnish shells, and they are differently named by the Arabs. The first is 'Hamsah,' found between Massowah and Zaila; second, 'Bissa,' found between Berbera and Ras Hafoon; third, 'Abdul Bekr,' found near the island of Perim; and fourth, 'Dabbah-Socotra,' obtained near the island of the latter name.

[1] See under Boat-Building, *ante*, p. 84.

The best description of shell is obtained from the 'Hamsah,' the next best from the 'Dabbah-Socotra;' the other two kinds furnishing thin and inferior shells are not consequently much sought after. The method of fishing in the Red Sea is as follows:—Small boats, called 'Zaimah,' of from 5 to 10 tons, are used by the Dankali tribe and the Arabs of the ports of Jiddah and Hodaida. The fishing is carried on close to the shore, one of the crew keeping a look-out from the mast-head. When a turtle is seen, it is cautiously approached and harpooned; when the animal is worn out by playing, a man dives after it, and secures it with another rope, and it is then hauled in. Sometimes the turtle is caught when it goes to the beach to lay its eggs; the head is dexterously covered with a cloth, and the animal is turned on its back and killed. The flesh and eggs are eaten, and the carapace or shield is placed over a slow fire until the scales become loose, when they are carefully removed with a knife, after which they are dried and brought for sale, under the name of 'Dabbal.' The average price of so-called tortoise-shell is about Rs.4 per lb.

(*c.*) '*Nakhla*' are the opercula or lids of a univalve shell of the genus Murex and Vasciolaria. This article of commerce is brought from the African shores of the Red Sea, and is exported to Bombay, from whence it is sent to the United Kingdom, but for what purpose is not known.

The price of the first sort is Rs.15 per maund of 28 lbs., and of the second sort Rs.10.

(*d.*) *Cowries.*—The small Cowrie, or Cypræa Moneta, is imported from Zanzibar, Massowa, Shehr, Makalla, and Mokha. They are much used by the Somalis to ornament their articles of furniture, such as baskets, stools, jars, etc., and also as necklaces. The price of unbored small cowries is Rs.5¼ per 80 lbs., and of bored, Rs.13 per 28 lbs. The larger kinds are sold at from Rs.3 to Rs.4 per 1000.

The quantities of shells exported and imported to and from the various countries in 1875-76 are shown in table on next page.

(9.) *Silk* (raw).—Inferior kinds of raw silk are technically known as 'punjam' and 'cutchra,' and are imported, dyed red, yellow, green, and blue. Surat silk, being better dyed than that of Bombay, is sold at a higher price. A small quantity of silk from Calcutta and China is imported for transhipment to Hodaida in country crafts. It is used by the Arabs in ornamenting the cotton cloths

which they wear, by the addition of a bright silken border. Very little raw silk is exported to Africa.

Raw silk arrives packed in bundles, of which two, three, four, or eight go to the pound. The price of one pound of Surat dyed silk

TABLE SHOWING QUANTITIES OF SHELLS EXPORTED AND IMPORTED TO AND FROM THE VARIOUS COUNTRIES IN 1875-76.

PLACE.	MOTHER-O'-PEARL.	TORTOISE.	COWRIES, SMALL.
IMPORTS.	Cwt	Lbs.	Cwt.
Massowa,	6½	131	41
Dankali Coast,	10¾		4
Zaila,	37½		...
Berbera,	17½	100	...
Ports between Berbera and Ras Hafoon,	2209	·7	..
Zanzibar,	1	...	34½
Jiddah,	74	356	...
Hodaida,	118	168	...
Mokha,	2	10	6
Lohaia,	717	1800	...
Gaizan,	15		...
Konfidah and Kamran,	411		...
Farsan,	59		...
Shehr and Makalla,	184¼	7	16
Perim Island,	.	3	...
Persia,	140½	..	...
Total,	4003	2582	101½
EXPORTS.			
United Kingdom,	1370½	.	...
Trieste,	755	422	...
France,	596	..	...
Italy,	85	25	...
Massowa,	..		16
Somali Ports,	...	..	½
Egypt,	44½	112	..
Hodaida,		...	15
Singapore,	3	259	...
Bombay,	204	140	8
Cutch,	.	...	3
Total,	3058	958	42½

varies from Rs.3¼ to Rs.3¾, and of Bombay dyed from Rs.2¼ to Rs.3; the retail price of the former per ounce is about 4 annas, and of the latter 3½ annas.

In 1875-76 the following quantities were imported and exported from and to various countries:—

Imports.		Exports.	
Place.	Lbs.	Place.	Lbs.
China, . . .	2,581	Zaila, ...	45
		Berbera, . . .	14
Bombay, . . .	63,721	Massowa, . . .	2
		Jiddah, . . .	140
Calcutta, . . .	1,800	Hodaida, . . .	29,025
		Mokha, . . .	10,071
		Interior, . . .	6,326
Total, .	68,102	Total, .	36,623

The quantity imported in 1875-76 was nearly double that received in former years.

(10.) *Silk Piece Goods.*—These goods are imported from Bombay, Calcutta, and China. The kinds used by the Arabs for wearing apparel are those made at Surat by hand-looms, and which are imported by Borah merchants, who have branch firms at Mokha and Hodaida. The quantity of silk piece goods received from Calcutta and China is small.

The value depends on the quality of the raw silk used in the manufacture, and the quantity of cotton that is introduced into the fabric.

The following descriptions of silk goods are imported, and the names by which they are known to the Arabs are given :—

Name.	Description and Length.	Width.
O'marî, ...	Piece of 5 to 8 yards,	21 inches.
Luki, ...	,, 6 yards,	21 ,,
Harkân, ...	,, 6 ,,	21 ,,
Baharaluk, ...	,, 6 ,,	21 ,,
Hamr Akhdhar, ...	,, 6 ,,	21 ,,
Manabârî, ...	,, 6 ,,	21 ,,
Khanâjarî, ...	,, 6 ,,	21 ,,
Ma' Ammâl, ...	,, 6 ,,	21 ,,
A'lâjah Suratî, ...	,, 5 to 8 yards,	21 ,,
Daria Manj, ...	,, 5 to 8 ,,	21 ,,
A'lâjah Aswad, ...	,, 5 to 8 ,,	21 ,,
Atlas Chinawî (China), . . .	,, 10 to 15 ,,	21 ,,
Atlas Suratî (Surat), . . .	,, 10 to 15 ,,	21 ,,
Garam Sut (cotton and silk), . .	,, 5½ to 7 ,,	25 ,,
Shâdir Subâhi, ...	,, 4 ,,	54 ,,
Footah Kikwâa'i, ...	,, 4 ,,	54 ,,
Shadir a'raijt, ...	,, 3½ ,,	72 ,,
Mumaial (gold brocade), . . .	,, 5 to 7 ,,	21 ,,
Kham Kham, ...	,, 5 to 8 ,,	21 ,,

A few other kinds, such as 'Shadir Nakashi,' 'Bôti,' etc., are also imported.

The value of the silk piece goods which arrived from the various countries in 1875-76 was as under :—

Countries.	Yards.	Rupees.	Pairs.	Rupees.	Dozen.	Rupees.
United Kingdom, .	285	1,280	...	...	2	50
Massowah, . .	115	115	...	..	..	..
Egypt, . . .	1,790	4,478	...	...	. .	...
Jiddah, . . .	200	120	.	.	.	...
Hodaida, . . .	974	394	245	775	. .	...
Makalla and Shehr, .	100	150	60	360	...	...
China, . . .	1,097	1,215	...	...	6½	100
Bombay, . . .	106,258	1,63,856	6,953	45,134	850	6,476
Calcutta, . . .	5,971	5,234	...	...	26¼	461
Kutch, . . .	915	895	6	110	...	...
Total, .	117,705	177,737	7,264	46,379	883	7,087

(11.) *Spices.*—The different kinds of spices that are imported are given below :—

(*a.*) Betel-nut.—Areca Catechu (Arabic, Fofil).

(*b.*) Cinnamon.—
(*c.*) Cassia Lignea.— } Cinnamomum Zelanicum (Arabic, Kurfâh).

(*d.*) Cloves.—Caryophyllus Aromaticus (Arabic, Koorumphul).

(*e.*) Cardamom.—Elettaria Cardamomum (Arabic, Hail).

(*f.*) Ginger.—Zingiber officinale (Arabic, Zangibil).

(*g.*) Pepper.—Piper nigrum (Arabic, Filfil).

(*h.*) Turmeric.—Curcuma longa (Arabic, Koorkum or Hoorud).

(*i.*) Agla or Aloe wood.—Aloexylou Agallochum (Arabic, Aggar).

(*j.*) Chillies, dry.—Capsicum frutescens (Arabic, Disbas).

(*a.*) Betel-nut.—Imported from Bombay and Malabar. Used for chewing purposes by the Hindus residing in Aden. Local wholesale approximate value, Rs.7 per maund of 28 lbs., and Rs.4 per 1000, with shells.

(*b.* and *c.*) Cinnamon and Cassia Lignea.—Imported from Bombay and China, and used by the Arabs in cooking. Exported to Hodaida, Jiddah, and the interior. Local approximate value, Rs.8½ to Rs.9 per maund of 28 lbs.

(*d.*) Cloves.—Imported from Zanzibar. After the hurricane in 1873 in that island, which destroyed the clove plantations, the quantity that arrived fell off, but the import of cloves has now

almost reached its former level. Local approximate value, Rs.16 to Rs.18 per maund of 28 lbs.

(*e.*) Cardamoms.—Imported in limited quantities from Bombay and Malabar. The Arabs are beginning to appreciate this spice. Local approximate value, Rs.65 per maund of 28 lbs. for the first sort, Rs.52 for the second sort, and Rs.44 for the third.

(*f.*) Ginger.—Imported from Bombay and Malabar, and used by the Arabs to flavour their coffee. Local approximate value, Rs.4¾ to Rs.5 per maund of 28 lbs.

(*g.*) Pepper.—Imported from Bombay, Malabar, and Singapore. Used for cooking purposes. Local approximate value, Rs.5½ to Rs.5¾.

(*h.*) Turmeric.—Imported from Bombay and Malabar. Exported to Jiddah, Hodaida, and the interior. Used by the Arab women for dyeing the skin. It is believed to act as a preventive against fever when applied externally. It is also used for cooking purposes. Local approximate value, Rs.2½ to Rs.2¾ per maund of 28 lbs.

(*i.*) Agla or Aloe wood.—Imported from Singapore and China. Used as incense by the Arabs, especially to perfume garments; to effect this a lighted brazier is placed inside a sort of open wicker-work frame, on which the garments to be fumigated are hung. Local approximate value, Rs.5 to Rs.6 per lb. Superior Rs.10 to Rs.12 per lb.

(*j.*) Chillies, dry.—Imported from Bombay and Malabar, and used to flavour food. Local approximate value, Rs.4 to Rs.4¼ per maund.

The spices that arrive from Malabar are generally packed in mats, made up into round bundles, weighing about 7 maunds each, called by the natives 'Mura.' Spices imported from Bombay are packed in gunny-bags.

The quantity imported and exported in 1875-76 is given in table on next page.

(12.) *Sugar.*—Imported from Mauritius, Bengal, Bombay, China, Malabar, and Zanzibar. The three kinds used by Arabs are known respectively as 'Maurice,'[1] 'Bengali,' 'Massari.' The latter arrives in small quantities. The white sort of Mauritius sugar is termed 'Abiadh;' the brown 'Ahmar;' the molasses 'Gur;' and sugar-candy 'Nabad.' Mauritius sugar is always crystallised, and is used in the preparation of sweetmeats. Bengal sugar, which is not

[1] Includes Malabar sugar.

crystallised, is imported of two sorts, white and brown, and is used with coffee and in cooking. The 'Massari,' or Egyptian sugar, is called by the Arabs 'Barmil' or 'Ghobali,' according to the manner in which it is packed or shaped. It used to arrive formerly in considerable quantities from Suez. Malabar sugar is of two kinds, the 'Koompti' and 'Sholapori.' It is very inferior, but cheap, and is much used by the Arabs in consequence. Since the establishment of a regular line of steamers with Zanzibar, molasses and brown sugar have been imported from that island. The latter is preferred by the natives of India in Aden to the Malabar kind.

TABLE SHOWING QUANTITY OF SPICES IMPORTED AND EXPORTED IN 1875-76.

PLACE.	Betel Nut.	Cinnamon.	Cloves.	Cardamom.	Ginger.	Pepper.	Turmeric.	Aloe Wood.	Chillies.
IMPORTS.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Lbs.	Cwt.
Bombay,	152½	118½	..	106	2268	908	2046	125	200
Malabar,	2	..	..	7	2181	808	750	..	100
Singapore,	..	120	4	..	..	375	..	8795	..
Zanzibar,	..	..	8093	..	..	91	..	..	..
Shehr and Makalla,	5	9½	..	4	23½	48	..	..	..
Calcutta,	..	12	..	..	258	..	..	..	..
Cutch,	5	..	..	..	12	..	..	..	..
Jiddah,	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Batavia,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	234	..
Total,	167½	259½	8097	117	4742½	2230	2796	9154	300
EXPORTS.									
Interior of Arabia,	..	40½	2	13	1274	1049	1102	271	50
Egypt,	..	5	676	2	73	42	..	140	..
Jiddah,	4	13	121	3	75	41	..	..	..
Hodaida,	11½	35	46	43	1323	583	433	1883	10
Mokha,	13	½	½	..	1½	2	19	..	..
Lohaia,	3	2	..	..	179	23	42	..	..
Gaizan,	..	10½	..	½	233	34	..	..	..
Shehr and Makalla,	2	18½	2	½	205	205	417	999	..
Muscat,	..	..	..	..	..	..	½	160	..
Persia,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	56	..
Perim Island,	..	..	..	..	½	½	3	..	..
Cutch,	..	..	6	..	..	½	..	..	..
United Kingdom,	..	..	3018	..	..	..	..	..	90
Trieste,	..	..	437	..	..	..	..	..	..
Massowa,	2	..	225	..	..	75	..	..	3
Dankali Ports,	..	..	..	..	..	13½	..	..	..
Zaila,	..	..	1½	..	3½	15½	1½	..	2½
Berbera,	..	..	¼	..	¾	13½	4½	..	4½
Zanzibar,	..	..	..	..	10	46½	73	611	..
Bombay,	..	..	3362	..	..	92	..	..	..
Mauritius,	..	..	..	..	..	92	75	..	..
Total,	35½	124½	7897½	61½	4285½	2247½	2170½	4120	160

Sugar-candy is imported from China, Singapore, and Bombay, being called respectively 'Chinchin,' 'Singapori,' and 'Kompti.'

The average market price of the various sorts of sugar is given below :—

Mauritius Sugar from Rs.4 to Rs.5¼ per maund of 28 lbs. avoirdupois.

Bengal Sugar from Rs.32 to Rs.35 for a bag of white, and Rs.29 to Rs.30 per bag, brown, each weighing 7¾ maunds (gross).

Sugar (loaf) from Rs.5½ to Rs.6 per maund (3 or 4 loaves to a maund).

Malabar Sugar from Rs.1½ to Rs.1¾ per maund of 28 lbs.

Zanzibar Sugar from Rs.2 to Rs.2½ ,, ,,

Do. Molasses from Rs.2½ to Rs.3 ,, ,,

Sugar-Candy (China) Rs.7½ ,, ,,

Do. (Singapore) Rs.6½ ,, ,,

Do. (Bombay) Rs.5½ to Rs.6 ,, ,,

The quantity imported and exported to different places was as follows in 1875-76 :—

Imports			Exports.		
Place	Sugar and Candy	Jagree or Molasses.	Place.	Sugar and Candy.	Jagree or Molasses.
	Cwts.	Cwts.		Cwts.	Cwts.
France, . .	72	.	Interior of Arabia,	918	228
Holland, . .	20		Massowa, . .	191	12
Italy, . .	172	...	Dankali Ports, .	8	7
Zanzibar, . .	50	1,715	Zaila, . .	77	10
Egypt, . .	36		Berbera, . .	45	13
Mauritius, .	6,825	6	Jiddah, . .	45	3
Makalla and Shehr,	48		Hodaida, . .	5,663	1,047
Muscat, . .	19	.	Mokha, . .	296	166
Singapore, .	587		Lohaia, . .	195	278
Bombay, . .	5,777	2,030	Gaizan, . .	152	28
Malabar, . .	404	113	Farsan, . .	28	14
Calcutta, . .	1,740		Makalla and Shehr,	355	1,018
			Persia, . .	27	
			Perim, . .	40	4
			Bombay, . .	58	
Total, . .	15,750	3,864	Total, . .	8,098	2,828

(13.) *Tobacco.*—Tobacco is imported from Suez, United Kingdom, United States of America, Persia, Makalla, Shehr, Bombay, Madras, and Singapore.

Suez.—Turkish tobacco is imported from Egypt, and is used by Europeans, Egyptians, and Turks. It is sold at from Rs.2 to Rs.3 per lb.

United Kingdom and United States of America.—Cavendish, or stick tobacco, as it is called, is imported from these places. It is used by the soldiers of the garrison and by sailors. It is sold at about Rs.$\frac{3}{4}$ per lb.

Persia (Nicotina Persica).—Known by the name of 'Shiraz,' or Persian tobacco in English, and 'Kazroon' in Arabic, is imported in large quantities, in an unmanufactured state, for transhipment to Jiddah, Hodaida, Mokha, and the interior of Arabia. It is sold at from Rs.3 to Rs.3$\frac{1}{2}$ per maund of 28 lbs.

Makalla and Shehr.—The tobacco imported from these ports is unmanufactured, and is called by the Arabs 'Hamumi.' It is grown at Al'Hami, Ghail, Bowish, Fuah, Al'Kâha, Al'Hutah, and Broom, in Hadhramaut. In the months of October and November beds are prepared of rich soil, into which seed is cast. These beds are then flooded and covered over with dry branches, to protect the seedlings from the heat of the sun. After this the plants are watered every six or seven days, and they are covered with a thin layer of manure consisting of small dried fish. A small quantity of guano (obtained from Socotra and Ras Hafoon) is then used to destroy insects. Beds are prepared for transplantation by being sprinkled with guano, and in about fifty days the plants are bedded out. Cattle-dung manure is used to make the soil richer, and the plants are watered every eight days. When two to two and a half months have elapsed, the stalks are cut down to within three or four inches of the ground; this crop is called by the Arabs 'Umia,' and is of two kinds, 'Bowraga' and 'Garin,' the latter being the better of the two. In another two months a second crop called 'Akda' is cut in a similar manner, and the plant is allowed to run to seed. It is then taken up by the roots, and the ground is prepared for grain, for the growth of which it is used until next season. The land is occasionally allowed to lie fallow. When the green leaves and stalks are cut, they are placed in large store-rooms and suspended with the tops downwards to dry for thirty or forty days; after drying, the best are removed and made into small bundles,

which are piled one over the other, and the mass is pressed with heavy stones for twenty or thirty days; the tobacco is then ready for the market. The prices of the three kinds are:—

Hamumi,	Garin,	Rs. 10 per maund of	28 lbs.
	Bowraga,	Rs.6 to Rs.8 do.	do.
	Akda,	Rs.1 to Rs.2 do.	do.

Bombay and Cutch.—The tobacco imported from these places is chiefly that grown in Guzerat, and is unmanufactured. It is called by the Arabs 'Surati,' and is of three sorts—'Vastanee,' 'Sunow,' and Mehlow.' It arrives in bales weighing 3 and 5 cwt. The first sort is exported to Massowa, the second is used by Somalis and Arabs of the interior, and the third by such of the latter as can afford to purchase it. Snuff, packed in small round earthenware jars, containing ¼ to ½ lb. each, is imported from Kutch. One 'Sallah,' or bamboo basket of circular shape, contains 520, ¼ lb. jars, or 280, ½ lb. jars. It is used by the Arabs of the interior. The prices of Bombay and Kutch tobacco are as follows:—

'Mehlow,' Rs.3½ to Rs.4½ per maund of 28 lbs.
'Vastanee,' Rs.2 to Rs.2¼ ,, ,,
'Sunow,' Rs.1¾ to Rs.2 ,, ,,

Snuff (Arabic, Burdagan Nahs)—

Rs.10 to Rs.22 per 'sallah' of 520 quarter-pound jars.
Rs.10 to Rs.20 ,, ,, 280 half ,, ,,

Madras.—The cigars and cheroots called 'Trichinopoly' are imported from Madras, and Manilla cheroots and cigars from Singapore; they are used by Europeans, the price being—

Trichinopoly cigars and cheroots, Rs.5 to Rs.12 per 1000.
Manilla ,, ,, Rs.30 to Rs.40 ,,

Indian unmanufactured tobacco is prepared in Aden for use by the Somalis and Arabs, by drying in the sun, after which it is pounded in a wooden mortar until converted into powder; it is then mixed with sal-ammoniac and retailed as snuff, or 'nassuk,' as it is called by the Arabs. It is sold at 4 annas a bottle.

The quantity of tobacco imported and exported during the year 1875-76 was as follows:—

Place.	Manufactured.	Unmanufactured.	Cigars and Cheroots.
Imports.	Lbs.	Lbs.	No.
United Kingdom,	4,200	...	14,000
Austria,	...	...	7,000
France,	72	...	22,800
Holland,	1,319	...	17,000
Spain,	...	...	3,500
Turkey in Europe,	3,546	...	...
Greece,	4,940	...	...
Egypt,	2,165	...	4,250
Makalla and Shehr,	...	371,056	...
Muscat,	...	336	...
China,	...	...	56,500
Persia,	...	515,424	...
Straits Settlements,	...	150	98,000
Bombay,	7,535	2,057,888	49,900
Madras,	...	...	58,000
Calcutta,	8,820	...	...
Cutch,	153,504	718,224	...
Total,	186,101	3,663,028	330,950
Exports.			
United Kingdom,	...	...	1,000
Malta,	...	...	10,000
Massowa,	...	376,492	...
Dankali Coast,	...	48,132	..
Zaila,	...	36,744	10,000
Berbera,	...	38,385	2,000
Other Somali Ports,	...	2,044	...
Zanzibar,	...	227	56,650
Egypt,	...	14,252	...
Jiddah,	...	378,448	...
Hodaida,	...	337,568	...
Mocha,	...	463,260	...
Lohaia,	...	27,972	...
Gaizan,	...	644	...
Farsan,	...	1,232	...
Ports in the Gulf of Aden,	1¾	28,224	...
Muscat,	..	112	...
Singapore,	...	164	...
Perim Island,	...	2,520	...
Bombay,	...	480	...
Cutch,	...	1,470	...
Total,	1¾	1,758,370	79,650

PART IV.—ADMINISTRATION.

SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION.—The Settlement is presided over by an officer who is styled Political Resident.

The duties of military commandant of the garrison are frequently combined with those of civil governor. The Resident resides at Steamer Point on Ras Tarshyne, but his office is in the Crater. The Resident has two assistants, and there is a cantonment magistrate, who is also, *ex officio*, an assistant. These officers perform all the civil, revenue, judicial, and ministerial duties of the Settlement.

Aden is politically subject to the Government of Bombay, and is considered for legal purposes as part of British India.

POLICE.—The Aden police force is regulated by Bombay Act VII. of 1867, and consists of,—2 European inspectors; 2 jemadars; 6 havildars (1st class); 6 ditto (2d class); 50 constables (1st class); 75 constables (2d class). Total, 141.

There is also a water police, as under,—

2 havildars; 10 constables.

The second Assistant-Resident is, *ex officio*, superintendent of police.

The force is distributed as follows:—

In the Crater, ...	85
Isthmus, ...	5
Maala, ...	15
Steamer Point, ...	36
Total,	141

The water police are employed afloat in matters connected with the shipping and maritime population.

The maintenance of the force (exclusive of the water police, who are paid from the port fund) costs Government about Rs.33,000 annually; Rs.3000 are further contributed from municipal collections.

In 1876, 1172 persons were apprehended by the police, of whom 912 were convicted, and 260 were acquitted and discharged.

CIVIL AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE.—The administration of civil and

criminal justice is regulated by a special Act of the Government of India.[1] The Bombay Cantonment Act[2] is also in force within military limits, as is also Act III. of 1859, which defines the civil jurisdiction of cantonment magistrates. The procedure in civil cases is that followed in the Mofussil in India; in criminal matters the Indian Criminal Procedure Code[3] is the guide, and the Indian Penal Code is the substantive criminal law. Most of the Acts of the Government of India that are applicable to the whole of British India are in force at Aden, as also are others that have been specially extended; this is the case with some Acts of the Bombay Government.

Aden has been declared to be one of the scheduled districts by Government of India Act XIV. of 1874.

Civil suits are disposed of daily in the Resident's Court, situated in the Crater, by the Assistants to the Resident, and the Registrar of this Court has been invested with jurisdiction, under Section 40, Act XI. of 1865,[4] to hear and determine suits not exceeding Rs.20.

In 1876, 2796 suits were disposed of in the above manner, to the value of Rs.142,941.

The cost of the maintenance of the establishment on both the civil and criminal sides of the Resident's Court amounts annually to about Rs.11,000, and the receipts on account of Court Fees, etc., to Rs.17,000 and upwards.

The officers exercising criminal jurisdiction are:—

Political Resident,[5] . .	Magistrate of the District, Justices of the Peace, and Sessions Judge.
1st Assistant Resident, .	1st Class Magistrates and Justices of the Peace.
2d Ditto, .	
Cantonment Magistrate and *ex officio* Assistant,	
Officer Commanding Aden Troop, ...	2d Class Magistrate.
Officer Commanding at Perim, ...	Power to punish native followers under Sec. 166, Act V. of 1869.

One of the Assistants to the Resident sits daily on the bench, in the Court House in the Crater, to try magisterial cases and to hear

[1] See Appendix B., p. 203.

[2] Bombay, Act III. of 1867.

[3] Act X. of 1872.

[4] Mofussil Small Cause Court Act.

[5] The Resident has also jurisdiction as a Judge of the Vice-Admiralty Court in connection with the Slave Trade Treaties made with the Sultan of Zanzibar and other Chiefs.

complaints, etc. There is also a Court-house at Steamer Point, where cognisable cases, occurring in that locality and on board the shipping in harbour, are disposed of by the Assistant who resides in that part of the Settlement.

The Cantonment Magistrate tries cases arising in military limits, and the Officer Commanding the Aden Troop exercises jurisdiction over offences occurring outside the barrier gate within British limits.

The number of cases disposed of in the Resident's Court by the Magistrates in the Settlement in 1876 was 717, and the number of persons arraigned was 1172.

Fifty per cent. of the offences occurring in the Settlement are committed by the Somalis, whose savage instincts are essentially predatory and decidedly bellicose.

Serious crimes are not of frequent occurrence; only one execution has taken place in the last ten years.[1]

An office for the Registration of Deeds and Assurances is established in Aden, which has been declared a Registration District under Act VIII. of 1871. This establishment is superintended by the 1st Assistant Resident, who is *ex officio* Registrar, the head clerk of the Resident's court being Sub-Registrar.

In 1875-76, 208 compulsory and 24 optional registrations took place, the documents presented being principally mortgages. The value of the property affected was Rs.235,561.

There has always hitherto been, and probably always will be, a yearly deficit in the maintenance of this office.

PRISONS.—The Aden jail is not a very substantial building, consisting merely of a few sheds surrounded by a high wall; but it has been found that this style of construction is best suited to the climate, and escapes are almost unheard of. The jail is under the superintendence of the Civil Surgeon, as is the practice in India. The cost of maintenance of prisoners, including charges for the fixed establishment and the military guard, seldom amounts to less than Rs.300 per head per annum. The daily average of prisoners aggregated seventy-five in the year 1875-76. The produce of convict labour was sold for Rs.1795 in the same year.

There is also a Civil Jail, in which a limited number of debtors can be confined, but the inmates seldom exceed fifteen or sixteen per annum, and the daily average of prisoners is barely one. The building is hired for the purpose, and the annual expenditure amounts to Rs.240.

[1] Among the civil population.

MUNICIPAL SYSTEM.—Shortly after the occupation of Aden it became obvious that some means must be speedily taken to insure the town being built with regularity, and after full consideration Government decided to grant land for building purposes on condition that the holders consent to pay all taxes which Government might see fit to impose thereafter, and further to pay a quit-rent of one pie[1] per square yard; this ground-rent however was not insisted on till 1855.

The proceeds of this cess were to be devoted to municipal purposes, and form the nucleus of a 'Municipal Fund.' Gradually it became necessary to impose certain small taxes for the improvement of the town, such as sweeping and watering cess, horse, donkey, and camel tax; the proceeds of the sale of water from wells were also credited to this fund. Brigadier-General Coghlan, who was then Political Resident, by his vigorous administration, speedily reduced matters to order, and in 1861 Government decided to leave the Political Resident entirely unfettered in all matters relating to the fund. Tables are annexed showing the various rates, taxes, etc., now in force.

Until 1874 the establishment and expenses of the Resident's Court were paid from the Municipal Fund, to which all judicial fines, fees on summonses, and other civil and criminal processes, were credited; but 'The Court Fees Act'[2] was introduced into the Settlement in the above year, and the cost of the judicial establishment and contingent expenses are now defrayed by Government.

The receipts of the Municipal Fund amounted to Rs.57,868 in 1875-76, this income being realised from the sources shown in Table A; and the expenditure, besides the entertainment of the various establishments for lighting, scavenging, watering, etc., purposes, is devoted to various works of improvement.

The superintendence of municipal matters is usually in the hands of the Second Assistant Resident, who however is compelled to refer all questions of annual expenditure to the Resident for sanction.

There can be no doubt the Settlement is not yet ripe for municipal government under the Indian system. There are but few really influential inhabitants, and there are many foreign merchants, whose stay is seldom protracted beyond a few years, and who on their departure sever all connection with the place. It does not

[1] Increased to two pies per square yard in 1861.

[2] Government of India Act VII. of 1870.

seem advisable that in a purely military settlement like Aden the Resident's authority should be other than absolute in municipal matters.

TABLE A.

LIST OF TAXES, RATES, ETC., PAYABLE TO THE ADEN MUNICIPAL FUND.

	Rate	Per	Amount realised in 1875-76
LICENSES.			R A. P.
1. Liquor shop, . .	Rs. 50	Annum, . .	650 0 0
2. Tobacco shop, . .	,, 3	,, .	801 0 0
3. Coffee shop, . .	,, 25	,, . .	1,195 0 0
4. Booza shop, . .	,, 15	,, . .	97 8 0
5. Carriage, . . .	,, 3	Each, . . .	344 0 0
6. Cart, . . .	,, 2	,, . . .	54 0 0
7. Camel, . . .	,, 1	,, . . .	120 0 0
8. Boat, . . .	,, 2	,, . . .	210 0 0
9. Donkey, . . .	,, 1	,, . . .	26 0 0
10. Arms, . . .	,, 2	,, . . .	12 0 0
11. Lime-kiln, . .	,, 3	Quarter, . .	51 0 0
Total, .		..	3,560 8 0
TAXES.			R. A. P.
1. Carriage,[1] . .	Rs. 3	Mensem, . .	1,683 0 0
2. Cart,[1] . . .	,, 2	,, . .	402 0 0
3. Camel,[1] . . .	As. 8	,, . .	484 8 0
4. Boat,[1] . . .	Rs. 2	,, . .	1,442 0 0
5. Donkey,[1] . .	,, 1	,, . .	204 0 0
6. Stall, 1st Class, .	,, 4	,, . .	1,992 0 0
,, 2d ,, .	,, 2	,, . .	2,640 0 0
,, 3d ,, .	,, 1	,, . .	3,450 0 0
7. Sweeping Tax on Kutcha Huts,	As. 2	250 square feet per annum, . .	2,718 11 6
8. Quit-rent, . .	Pies 2	Square yard p. annum	5,264 7 0
9. Sweeping tax, .	Rs. 3 ,, 6 ,, 9 ,, 12 ,, 15 ,, 18 ,, 21 ,, 24	1-200 sq. yds. ,, 201-500 ,, ,, 501-1000 ,, ,, 1001-1500 ,, ,, 1501-2000 ,, ,, 2001-2500 ,, ,, 2501-5000 ,, ,, 5001 and upwards ,,	9,144 0 0
10. Watering tax,[2] .	,, 3	Each separate grant,	1,449 0 0
Total, .	..	... ...	30,873 10 6

[1] Levied in addition to the License Fee.

[2] Levied only in those quarters of the town which are watered.

TABLE B.

FEES.

	Rate.	Per	Amount realised in 1875-76. R. A. P.
1. Poundage,	As. 8	Camel,	306 2 0
	,, 4	Bull or cow,	
	,, 4	Horse,	
	,, 2	Donkey,	
	,, 1	Goat or sheep,	
	,, 1	Dog,	
2. Notice,	,, 4	Each,	39 0 0
3. Building memo.	,, 4	,,	25 12 0
4. Water tickets,	,, 2	,,	69 12 0
5. Registration of carriage-drivers,	,, 4	,,	4 12 0
6. Burial of carcases,	Rs. 5	Camel,	93 13 0
	,, 4	Horse,	
	,, 4	Cow or bull,	
	,, 2	Donkey,	
	,, ¾	Goat or sheep,	
	,, ½	Kid,	
	As. 6	Dog,	
7. Grants for wells,	Rs. 10	Each,	20 0 0
8. ,, ,, land,	,, 10	,,	350 0 0
9. Tom-toming notices,	,, 2/6/0	,,	260 10 0
10. Drawing up deeds,	,, 6	Deed of sale,	622 0 0
	,, 3	Mortgages,	237 0 0
	,, 3	Deed of gift,	3 0 0
11. Removing pumice for export,	,, 1	Per ton,	930 3 2
12. Fees received from Resident's Court, main gate passes, etc.,	...	... ...	202 4 0
13. Fees on Articles weighed or measured in the Zareeba,[1]	½ to ¾ kaila	Camel-load of grain,	5,631 2 1
	1 pailee to ¾	,, gingelly seed,	
	As. 2	,, coffee,	
	,, 1	,, aloes,	
	,, 3	,, ghee,	
	,, 3	,, skins,	
	,, 1½	Camel-load henna	
	,, 2	madee,	
		,, all other articles,	
Total,	...	... ...	8,795 6 3

[1] These articles are weighed and measured under Government superintendence to prevent the Bedawins from the interior being imposed upon.

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TABLE C.

MISCELLANEOUS.

	Amount realised in 1875-76.
	R. A. P.
1. Wells, by sale of water, ...	4,337 4 0
2. do., by lease to contractor, ...	1,498 0 0
3. Coal grounds,[1] assessment of 2 pies per square yard, .	603 13 10
Total, . . .	6,439 1 10

LAND TENURE.—The terms on which land is granted in Aden are of two descriptions :[2]—

(*a.*) Ground conceded for building purposes within the limits of the townships.

(*b.*) Land leased to individuals or companies on the foreshore and elsewhere for a specific purpose.

(*a.*) Ground conceded for building purposes is granted to applicants by the Political Resident, under the general sanction of Government, conveyed in 1842, on the following conditions :—

1st, The ground shall be examined and measured by an officer appointed to that duty.

2d. Buildings hereafter erected on the ground shall be constructed straight with the line of road or street, shall be pucka built, or of mud and stone, chunamed outside, and coloured yellow or grey.

3d. Government shall receive a quit-rent for the same, and such other local taxes as may from time to time be fixed.

4th. If the building or buildings be not completed within a reasonable time, the ground to be liable to resumption without compensation.

Government, on the other hand, in the event of the ground being required for public purposes, engage to give fair compensation.

(*b.*) All other land is leased subject to an assessment and certain specified conditions as to term, etc., and is resumable under the provisions of the Land Acquisition Act[3]—the main point of differ-

[1] Peninsula and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, Messageries Maritimes Company, Luke Thomas and Company, Messrs. Cowasjee Dinshaw and Brothers, Aden Coal Company.

[2] Does not include ground temporarily granted for the erection of reed and mat houses or sheds.

[3] Government of India Act X. of 1870.

ence being that land held under (*a*) is inalienable, but transferable at will to other owners, whereas property held under (*b*) is not transferable without the sanction of Government. The latter kind of tenure is that under which pieces of land are held by various private companies, to be used as coal-grounds, and for the erection of condensers, ice-manufactories, and warehouses.

The assessment charged on ground occupied under (*b*), and the quit-rent paid by the holders under (*a*), is at present the same, and amounts to two pies per square yard per annum. Several companies hold land under special conditions, not included in those mentioned above, but it is unnecessary here to refer to these isolated cases, which have arisen out of unforeseen contingencies, and cannot affect any future grants of land.

The Settlement is divided into three portions:—

(1.) The town of Aden.

(2.) The village of Maala.

(3.) The township of Steamer Point.

Each of these is again subdivided into sections; the number of houses in each of the divisions is as follows:—

	Stone.	Reeds and Mats.
Town of Aden, ...	1879	432
Village of Maala, . . .	213	562
Township of Steamer Point, .	300	Nil.

No formal grants are made in the case of houses constructed of mats and reeds, but each holder receives a memo. showing the position of the ground given, and its boundaries. It also exhibits the amount leviable monthly on account of sweeping-tax, which is the only rate collected on houses of this description; the present cess is at the rate of 2 annas per 20 square yards. A full account of the various municipal taxes, levied in the case of stone houses, will be found under the head of Municipal System (see *ante*), from which it will be observed that all collections on account of quit-rent and assessment are credited to the municipal fund.

FINANCE.—Financially speaking, Aden is a heavy burden on the revenues of India.

The amount collected for imperial purposes is very small, only an average of Rs.53,000 per annum for the past three years. This sum is made up of excise on spirits and drugs, about Rs.20,000, stamps,[1] Rs.10,000, and miscellaneous, Rs.23,000.

[1] Not including postage stamps, which come under the head of Remittance Account.

The sum credited to the provincial revenues averages Rs. 13,000, consisting of receipts on account of jail manufactures, registration, printing, medical and miscellaneous collections.

The expenditure from imperial revenues is about Rs. 16,50,000, made up as follows :—military department, Rs. 13,00,000 , public works, Rs. 2,40,000 ; miscellaneous, Rs. 1,10,000.

The disbursements on account of provincial services average R. 59,000 yearly.

Aden therefore costs India nearly 15½ lacs of rupees per annum, or roughly £150,000.

Her Majesty's Government do not contribute anything from British or Colonial revenues towards the support of the Settlement, although Great Britain, Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, and China all partake equally with India in the benefits derived from Aden being a British possession.

The local income and expenditure from marine and municipal sources will be found mentioned under those heads.

TREASURY AND ACCOUNT.—The treasury is in charge of the Political Resident, one of whose Assistants performs the duties of treasury officer. The system of accounts in use is that termed the 'unclassified.' Most military payments are made by cheques drawn by the military paymaster in Bombay. The executive engineer has a drawing account against a monthly credit order ; the commissariat officer has a yearly assignment, against which he draws, as also is the case with the paymaster of the British regiment. A cash account is furnished monthly to the accountant-general in Bombay, to whom lists of payments are also sent. The monthly receipts average Rs. 1,70,000,[1] and the disbursements Rs. 1,80,000. There are three ways of filling the treasury—by remittances in silver, by remittances in notes, and by granting supply-bills to local merchants on Bombay. The latter, which is obviously the most convenient and least expensive method, is not always possible, being affected by the specie remittances that are made to Zanzibar and the neighbouring Arabian ports, as also by the rate of exchange. Notes are in great demand in Aden for remittance purposes ; and were it not opposed to the accountant-general's orders to issue notes in exchange for cash where it is known they will be used for remittance purposes, it would only under very exceptional circumstances be ever necessary to obtain consignments of silver from India.

ABKARI REVENUE.—The following contracts are sold yearly :—

[1] Includes money received on account of supply-bills and remittances.

(1.) Contract for the exclusive privilege of sale of malt and spirituous liquors to petty officers and seamen of the Royal Navy and Indian Marine; to the crews of all merchant vessels, British or foreign; to the inhabitants of the Settlement; to the native troops and followers, and to European troops in the Cantonment, under passes from commanding officers (not including sergeants' messes and canteens).

(2.) Contract for the exclusive privilege of the manufacture and sale of date liquor for the use of the Jewish community only.

(3.) Contract for the exclusive privilege of the sale of opium by retail.[1]

(4.) Contract for the exclusive privilege of the sale of ganja and charas by retail.[1]

(5.) Contract for the exclusive privilege of the sale of madad and chundul by retail.[1]

(6.) License for the sole privilege of recovering the duty[2] on kât imported into Aden.

An average annual revenue of Rs.6465 is collected from this last source, and is credited to the municipal fund.

Contracts 1 to 5 are sold under Regulation 21 of 1827 and Act III. of 1852.

No. 6 is more in the nature of an octroi duty on a luxury, and the proceeds are devoted to municipal purposes. The Resident also grants a limited number of licenses to shop and hotel keepers to retail spirits, etc., to particular classes, under certain restrictions, in consideration of a fee of Rs.50 per annum for each license, the proceeds being credited to the municipal fund.

Liquor.—The farmers of Contract No. 1 are permitted to have a limited number of shops in the Settlement, and at present they have six. They sell rum, arrack, and French brandy to the poorer classes, and Europe wines, spirits, and malt liquor to others. Natives are allowed to drink on the premises of the contractors, but they are not permitted to remove liquor, except under passes signed by magistrates or commanding officers.

Date Liquor.—The farmers of contract No. 2 possess one distillery, and are only permitted to sell liquor at one shop to the Jewish community. In former times Jews used to distil in their own

[1] To the native inhabitants of the Settlement, and to the native troops and followers in the Cantonment.

[2] The authorised duty for every 25 lbs. weight of Makhtrai kât, and for every 30 lbs. of Sabrai kât is R.1.

houses. For an account of the process of distilling, see Part III., Manufactures and Industries.

Opium.—The farmers of Contract No. 3 purchase opium from the Government depôt at Government rates, and sell at eleven annas per tola. The sale of opium is permitted at only one shop, and more than quarter of a Surat seer must not be sold, within three successive days, to one individual, except under a magisterial pass. Europeans may not purchase at all, except under a pass. Smuggling of inferior opium from the interior is sometimes detected and punished.

Ganja and Charas.—These articles are sold from Rs.3 to Rs.10 per maund; but, in order to prevent abuse, ganja may not be sold in Aden at less than Rs.100 per maund, and charas at Rs.200 per maund. Only one retail shop is allowed.

Madad and Chundul.—These are preparations of opium. The contractor purchases the latter drug from the licensed farmer at eleven annas a tola, out of which weight he makes eighteen balls of madad or chundul, and sells them at an anna each. Only one retail shop is allowed.

Kât.—The following description of this drug is from the *London Pharmaceutical Journal*, vol. xii., No. 5, Nov. 1, 1859—*Notes upon the Drugs observed at Aden, Arabia*, by James Vaughan, M.R.C.S.E., Assistant-Surgeon, B.A., Civil and Port-Surgeon, Aden, Arabia:—

'Kât, the name of a drug which is brought into Aden from the interior, and largely used, especially by the Arabs, as a pleasurable excitant. It is generally imported in small camel-loads, consisting of a number of parcels, each containing about forty slender twigs, with the leaves attached and carefully wrapped so as to prevent as much as possible exposure to the atmosphere. The leaves form the edible part, and these, when chewed, are said to produce great hilarity of spirits, and an agreeable state of wakefulness. Some estimate may be formed of the strong predilection which the Arabs have for this drug from the quantity used in Aden alone, which averages about 280[1] camel-loads annually. The market price is one and a quarter rupee per parcel, and the exclusive privilege of selling it is farmed by the Government for 1500[2] rupees per year. Forskäl found the plant growing on the mountains of Yemen, and has enumerated it as a new genus in the class Pentandria, under the name of Catha. He notices two species, and distinguishes

[1] In 1876, 1200.

[2] In 1876, Rs.8000 for privilege of collecting duty on.

them as Catha edulis and Catha spinosa. According to his account, it is cultivated on the same ground as coffee, and is planted from cuttings. Besides the effects above stated, the Arabs, he tells us, believe the land where it grows to be secure from the inroads of plague, and that a twig of the kât carried in the bosom is a certain safeguard against infection. The learned botanist observes, with respect to these supposed virtues, "Gustus foliorum tamen virtutem tantam indicare non videtur." Like coffee, kât, from its acknowledged stimulating effects, has been a fertile theme for the exercise of Mahomedan casuistry, and names of renown are ranged on both sides of the question, whether the use of kât does or does not contravene the injunction of the Koran,—"Thou shalt not drink wine or anything intoxicating."' The succeeding notes, borrowed chiefly from De Lacy's researches, may be deemed worthy of insertion here :—

'Sheikh Abdul Kadir Ansari Jezeri, a learned Mahomedan author, in his treatise on the use of coffee, quotes the following from the writings of Fakr-ud-Dîn Makki :—"It is said that the first who introduced coffee was the illustrious saint Abu Abdallah Mahomed Dhabbani ibn Said ; but we have learned, by the testimony of many persons, that the use of coffee in Yemen, its origin, and first introduction into that country, are due to the learned Ali Shadeli ibn Omar, one of the disciples of the learned Doctor Nasr-ud-Dîn, who is regarded as one of the chiefs among the Order of Shadeli, and whose worth attests the high degree of spirituality to which they had attained. Previous to that time they made coffee of the vegetable substance called cafta, which is the same as the leaf known under the name of kât, and not of boon (the coffee-berry), nor any preparation of boon. The use of this beverage extended, in course of time, as far as Aden, but in the days of Mahomed Dhabbani the vegetable substance from which it was prepared disappeared from Aden. Then it was that the Sheikh advised those who had become his disciples to try the drink made from the boon, which was found to produce the same effect as the kât, inducing sleeplessness, and that it was attended with less expense and trouble. The use of coffee has been kept up from that time to the present."

'D'Herbelot states that the beverage called 'calmat al catiat' or 'caftah' was prohibited in Yemen, in consequence of its effects upon the brain. On the other hand, a synod of learned Mussulmans is said to have decreed that, as beverages of kât and caftah do not impair the health, or impede the observance of religious duties, but

only increase hilarity and good humour, it was lawful to use them, as also the drink made from the boon or coffee-berry. I am not aware that kât is used in Aden in any other way than for mastication. From what I have heard, however, I believe that a decoction resembling tea is made from the leaf by the Arabs in the interior; and one who is well acquainted with our familiar beverage assures me that the effects are not unlike those produced by strong green tea, with this advantage in favour of kât, that the excitement is always of a pleasing and agreeable kind.'[1]

MILITARY.—The garrison is commanded by an officer holding the rank of Brigadier-general, and consisted, on the 1st January 1877, of three batteries of Garrison Artillery, under the command of a Colonel, with an Adjutant as Staff-officer, one British Infantry regiment (less one company), one Native Infantry regiment, one company of Native Sappers and Miners, and one hundred sabres of Cavalry, called the 'Aden Troop.'[2]

[1] 'Mr. Vaughan has transmitted two specimens, called Sabrai kât and Makhtrai kât, from the districts in which they are produced; the latter fetches the lower price. Catha edulis (Forsk.), Nat. Ord. Celastraceae, is figured in Dr. Lindley's *Vegetable Kingdom*, p. 588 (London, 1846). But there is a still more complete representation of the plant, under the name of Catha Forskalii Richard, in a work published under the auspices of the French Government, entitled *Voyage en Abyssinie éxecuté pendant les années* 1839-1843, par une commission scientifique composée de MM. Théophile Lefebvre, Lieut. du Vaisseau, A. Petit et Martin-Dillon, docteurs médecins, naturalistes du Museum, Vignaud dessinateur. The botanical portion of this work, by M. Achille Richard, is regarded either as a distinct publication, under the title of *Tentamen Floræ Abyssinicæ*, or as a part of the *Voyage en Abyssinie*. M. Richard enters into some of the particulars relative to the synonyms of the plant, from which it appears that Vahl referred Forskäl's genus Catha to the Linnæan genus Celastrus, changing the name of Catha edulis to Celastrus edulis. Hochstetter applied the name of Celastrus edulis to an Abyssinian species (Celastrus obscurus, Richard), which he imagined identical with Forskäl's Catha edulis; while, of the real Catha edulis, Forsk., he formed a new genus and species, under the name of Trigonotheca serrata, Hochs., Nat. Ord. Hippocrataceæ. I quote the following references from the *Tentamen Floræ Abyssinicæ*, vol. i. p. 134:—Catha Forskälii Nob. Catha, No. 4, Forsk., *loc. cit.* (Flor. Ægypt. Arab., p. 63); Trigonotheca serrata, Hochs., in pl. Schimp. Abyss., sect. ii. No. 649; Celastrus edulis, Vahl Ecl. i. 21. Although, in the *Flora Ægyptiaco Arabica* of Forskäl, no specific name is applied to the Catha at p. 63, it is enumerated as Catha edulis at p. 107. The reference to Celastrus edulis is not contained in the *Eclogæ Americanæ* of Vahl, but in the author's *Symbolæ Botanicæ* (Hanmæ, 1790, fol.), pars. i. p. 21 (Daniel Hanbury, signed).'

[2] A local corps, one hundred strong, raised for service in the interior. Twenty Arabs of the Abdali and Fadhli tribes, mounted on camels, are attached to the troop as guides.

The Staff-officers usually are,—one Brigade-major, one Commissary of Ordnance, one Executive Engineer, one Assistant Engineer, and one Executive Commissariat Officer.

The troops are stationed in the following positions :—Steamer Point,—head-quarters, and two batteries of Garrison Artillery, and two companies of British Infantry. Isthmus Position,—two companies of British and two companies Native Infantry. Crater (camp),—head-quarters and remainder of British Infantry, head-quarters and four companies Native Infantry, a battery of Garrison Artillery, and the company of Sappers and Miners. Khor Maksar, —the Aden Troop. Perim,—fifty rank and file of Native Infantry, under a European officer.

The reliefs are generally arranged as follows :—The British regiment remains one year, and leaves for England in a troop-ship about February, being relieved by another regiment from India. The Artillery are portion of the brigade which garrisons Bombay (Colaba), and batteries usually remain two years in Aden. The Native Infantry regiment is relieved every two years, as is also the company of Sappers and Miners.

The Aden Troop are a local corps, and do not move.

The native troops and followers, as well as the British troops, draw rations at Aden. The cost per head per annum is seldom less than—

British soldier,	Rs. 180	per head.
Native do.,	77	
Public followers,	53	

Native troops draw also field batta.

Perim is provisioned for three months during the north-east, and six months during the south-west monsoon.

FORTIFICATIONS.—Since its capture in 1839 by the British, great attention has been paid to the fortifying of Aden, and all the latest improvements in engineering and artillery are about to be applied to render it even stronger than it now is.

The isthmus is guarded by massive lines of defence, strengthened by a broad ditch, bastions, demi-bastions, redans, and casements, armed with what was formerly considered heavy ordnance ; this line is divided into two parts by a hill which is pierced by a tunnel. A line of scarp running along the Munsoorie range of hills, defended by batteries and towers, connects the two ends of the isthmus defences, and completes the enceinte of the defensible position. Within it are located an arsenal, magazine, barracks for

a portion of the garrison, a condenser, capacious water tanks, wells, and a few public buildings. A tunnel, 350 yards long, connects the isthmus position, as it is called, with the Crater. The seaward defences consist of martello towers, batteries on the hills, piers of obstruction, and other subservient works. At Steamer Point there are heavy batteries on Ras Tarshyne and Ras Morbat, and a mole battery has been constructed at the extremity of the latter headland.

TROOPING.—The annual relief of the British regiment arrives in one of the Indian troop-ships about the end of February; the regiment for Aden is landed, and the regiment for England is put on board under local arrangements.

The superintendence of the embarkation and disembarkation is intrusted to the Conservator of the port, who hires lighters and steam-tugs for the purpose. At present there are five steam-tugs available for towing purposes, of which Messrs. Luke, Thomas, and Company own two, and the Peninsular and Oriental Company, the Messageries Maritimes Company, and the Aden Coal Company, one each.

On three occasions within the past six years the troop-ships have entered the inner harbour, greatly facilitating the embarkation and debarkation of the troops. When the vessel remains outside, the operation can seldom be accomplished under twelve hours; otherwise six hours suffice.

The other reliefs arrive in Indian Government vessels, or steamers chartered by Government, and similar arrangements are made for shipping and landing the troops.

MARINE.—The Port of Aden is regulated by the Indian Ports Act,[1] under which a port-due of 1 anna, and a pilotage-fee of 4 pies, per registered ton, is levied. These collections are employed for the support and maintenance of the Harbour Establishment and plant; considerable sums are also expended in improvements; the cast-iron shed over the Saluting Pier, and the iron extension of the Post-Office Pier were paid for from the Port Fund; the deepening of the harbour is under consideration, and borings in connection with the project are now being executed.

The port is in charge of a Conservator, who attends to all matters connected with the berthing, mooring, etc., of vessels that enter the harbour. The lighthouses[2] attached to the Settlement are also in

[1] Government of India Act XII. of 1875.

[2] See Appendix C., p. 207.

charge of this officer. In accordance with the above-quoted Act, Port Rules[1] have been published by the authority of Government.

During the year 1875-76 the number of vessels that entered the port was 999; they were classified as follows:—

Royal Navy,	23
Her Majesty's troop-ship,	5
Indian Government vessels,	21
Merchant steamers,	846
Foreign ships of war,	19
Foreign troop-ships,	39
Merchant sailing ships,	46
Total,	999

The passenger boats that ply in the harbour are under the control of the Conservator of the Port, and are licensed under Bombay Act VI. of 1863.

A shipping office is attached to that of the harbour, and is chiefly useful for the relief of distressed seamen, and for the registration and noting of protests, the Conservator of the Port being always appointed a Justice of the Peace for this purpose.

The duties of transport officer are performed by the Conservator of the Port, as also those under the Native Passengers Act.[2]

The balance to the credit of the Port Fund on the 31st August 1876 was Rs. 2,15,502.

The pilotage fees collected in 1875-76 amounted to Rs. 15,550, and the harbour dues to Rs. 54,455; the total revenue for that period, including sale of stores and other miscellaneous items, being Rs. 71,104, and the expenditure amounted to Rs. 57,891.

There are two European, three native, and two apprentice pilots besides seventy-eight Lascars, in the harbour and pilotage departments.

ROYAL NAVY AND INDIAN MARINE.—Since the opening of the Suez Canal, it has become more and more obvious that a vessel of war of some size should always be stationed at Aden. The Egyptians have seven or eight, and the Turks three or four men-of-war always in the vicinity. Moreover, the visits of ships of foreign navies are becoming more frequent yearly. It seldom, however, happens that the Admiral on the East India Station, within whose

[1] See Appendix D., p. 208.

[2] Government of India Act VIII. of 1876.

command Aden lies, finds it in his power to send anything larger than a gun-boat, or at best a sloop of war, to this port.

A vessel of the Indian Marine is almost invariably in harbour. She is under the orders of the Political Resident, who employs her in carrying out the relief of the Native Infantry detachment at Perim, on political duty to the neighbouring ports of Arabia and Africa, and to render assistance to vessels that may be wrecked, or otherwise disabled, in the vicinity. For an account of the services rendered in this way by Indian Government vessels, see 'Wrecks and Casualties,' Part VI.

MEDICAL AID.—Besides the military hospitals attached to the troops composing the garrison, there are three places where medical aid is afforded gratis to the general public :—

(*a.*) The Civil Hospital.
(*b.*) The Prince of Wales Charitable Dispensary.
(*c.*) The European General Hospital and Dispensary.

(*a.*) *The Civil Hospital.*—This hospital is situated in the centre of the town, and is in charge of the civil surgeon, who is always a commissioned officer of the Indian Medical Department. He resides in the Crater, and affords medical assistance to all Government servants living in that locality. The Civil Hospital was built by voluntary subscription in 1860; the establishment is kept up by Government at an average outlay of Rs.20,000 per annum, and the municipality contribute from Rs.3000 to Rs.4000 yearly towards the support and maintenance of this hospital, which is conveniently located for the inhabitants.[1] It accommodates fifty patients without overcrowding.[2]

The patients seeking advice and relief are for the most part pilgrims and mendicants, but persons of a better class from the provinces of Yemen and Hadhramaut, and from the coast of Africa, come to be operated on, or to receive medicine.

(*b.*) *The Prince of Wales Charitable Dispensary.*—This institution was established in commemoration of the visit of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales to Aden in November 1875. The native inhabitants of the Settlement subscribed Rs.20,000, Government gives a yearly grant in aid of Rs.2000, and the Municipal Fund

[1] Native seamen, and servants who are entitled to medical aid from their employers, are charged a small daily sum for subsistence.

[2] This excludes the 'Mayo Ward,' erected in 1870 to memorialise the visit of Lord Mayo, who presented a donation of £25, and a simular amount was contributed by the inhabitants. This ward is used for special surgical cases.

contributes Rs. 1000 per annum. A native assistant-surgeon of the Indian Medical Department is in medical charge. The Dispensary is conveniently situated in the Crater, and the average daily attendance is nearly 100.

Since this Dispensary was opened a very large number of native inhabitants have sought medical advice from the native assistant-surgeon in charge. For some reason or other there seems to be a reluctance on the part of the inhabitants to consult European practitioners unless in severe illness (except in the case of Parsis and other educated natives of India), but this does not extend to surgical operations.

(*c.*) *The European General Hospital and Dispensary.*[1]—This hospital is at Steamer Point, and is in charge of a commissioned member of the Indian Medical Department, who is port surgeon, and attends Government servants who live in that part of the Settlement. The chief inmates are seamen of the British and Foreign Marine. There is accommodation for twenty-four patients. The cost of the establishment and maintenance is defrayed by Government, and amounts to Rs. 7600 annually, exclusive of the salary of the medical officer in charge. R. 1 per diem on account of diet is charged for each patient in the general ward, and Rs. 2 for each ship's officer or other person treated in the separate ward.

A boat and crew are placed at the disposal of the port surgeon for the performance of his duties afloat, and the expense of this establishment is borne by the Port Fund. These men are also useful for quarantine and sanitary purposes within harbour limits.

CONTAGIOUS DISEASES.—The rules framed under section xi. of Bombay Act III. of 1867 have been extended to civil limits, and all the known prostitutes in the Settlement are registered. These women are compelled to live in a particular place set apart for them. There are at present nineteen registered prostitutes; but there is every reason to believe that a very large number of women, who are not on the register, practise prostitution, yet the amount of disease is comparatively small, the number of admissions into hospital from venereal disease at Aden among the European troops was only 76·37 per 1000 in 1875, Karachi being the only station during that year, in the Bombay Presidency, where the admissions were less.

[1] The present building is very unsuitable, and the construction of a new hospital has been under contemplation for many years past. Aden is apparently not better off than Bombay in this respect.

Most of the public prostitutes are Somalis; there are also a few Arabs. These unfortunate women have to pay a daily sum for the hire of a house, furniture, clothes, and ornaments, and they are all addicted to intemperance.

ECCLESIASTICAL ARRANGEMENTS.—*Protestant.*—From the capture of Aden by the British up to the year 1864 there was no church, and service was conducted in what were called 'divine sheds;' one of the woodcuts in the last charge delivered by Bishop Harding is a sketch representing one of these temporary substitutes for a church. The reproach was however removed in the above year, for, from funds partly raised by public subscription (chiefly on board the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers, where many passengers to India must recollect seeing a box labelled 'Aden Church'), and partly by Government contribution, a handsome church was erected at Steamer Point, which was consecrated by Bishop Harding on the 10th January 1864. The chancel is 96 feet long and 52 feet wide. The church can accommodate 350 persons, and is called 'Christ Church.'

In the Crater, Government have built a church,[1] which was consecrated by Bishop Douglas on the 7th November 1871. The size of the church is as follows:—

The nave, ...	44′ × 30′
The two transepts, ...	15′ × 30′
The chancel, ...	22′ × 14′
The vestry, ...	11′ × 7½′

There are seats for about 350 people.

Both the above churches are served by a chaplain, who is appointed and paid by Government. A service is held once every Sunday in each church, and occasionally on week-days. In the absence of the chaplain, prayers are read by one of the officers of the garrison.

Cemeteries.—There are four cemeteries at Aden, two in the Crater, and two at Steamer Point; one in each place is now disused. The chaplain is in charge of these cemeteries, and Government allows Rs. 15 per mensem to water trees and to keep them in order.

The rules for the erection of monuments, etc., are the same as those in force in India, and the usual establishment for the church and cemeteries is maintained by Government.

Roman Catholic.—The Roman Catholic mission at Aden was

[1] Church of St Mary the Virgin.

founded in 1840, soon after the British occupation. It is perfectly independent of all other missions, and is subservient only to the head of the Roman Catholic Church. The superior has the title of Prefect Apostolic; he enjoys the same faculties as bishops, save the ordination of priests. In 1855 the mission was intrusted to the Order of Saint Francis of Assisi (instituted in 1212), the members of which are called Capuchins. The order has numerous missions in different parts of the world, and, as regards British possessions in the East, is intrusted with the apostolic charge of Agra and Patna, and also with that of the Seychelles Islands.

The Roman Catholic community in Aden, whose spiritual wants these ministers attend to, is composed of Europeans of different nationalities, and Indians, Abyssinians, Shoas, Swahilis, etc. One of the resident missionaries is appointed by Government Roman Catholic chaplain to the troops of the garrison. Divine service is performed every Sunday at the chapels in the Crater and Steamer Point, and in the barracks at the Isthmus Position. All the buildings occupied or used by the mission, including the chapel in the Crater (built 1852), and that at Steamer Point (built 1860), the residence of the missionaries, and the convent, were constructed at the cost of the mission, out of subscriptions and donations collected from Catholics of different nations.

Convent.—The nuns, or sisters of the 'Good Shepherd,' came to Aden in 1868, with a view to their educating girls of all persuasions, and also to afford an asylum to any converts or reformed characters. The chief convent of the 'Good Shepherd's' Institute is at Angers (Department of Maine-et-Loire), in France. The nuns residing in Aden are usually British-born subjects. The order possesses several convents in England and Ireland, as well as in other British possessions.

EDUCATION.—In 1856 Brigadier-General Coghlan, at the suggestion of the Rev. P. Badger, then chaplain of Aden, obtained Government sanction to the establishment of a school in the Settlement. The object sought was to enable the inhabitants of Aden to give their children a good sound education, and it was also hoped that the surrounding Arab chiefs would make use of the institution to educate their children, and thus, in time, some of the deep-rooted fanatic prejudices common to most Arabs against people of other religions might become modified, if not eradicated. The services of a well-educated Englishman were obtained as headmaster, and he was assisted by an adequate staff of teachers. The

ignorance and apathy of the inhabitants, however, and the withholding of their patronage by the chiefs, led to the abolishing of this school within the short period of two years.

In 1866, Colonel Merewether, then Resident, applied and obtained sanction to the re-opening of a Government School at Aden, but it was this time established on a less pretentious basis and on a less expensive scale. The idea of giving the institution the character of a college or academy was wisely put on one side, and nothing more was aimed at than to make the school the medium of communicating an elementary education to all who might choose to attend. At first, as might be expected, but little encouragement was received from the townspeople, and for two years the progress of the Institution could hardly be considered satisfactory. Most of the pupils were the sons of the sepoys of the native regiment stationed at Aden, and only six boys belonging to the town were on the register. In the next four years the school showed signs of greater vitality, and the daily attendance increased from twenty-one to fifty. Traders soon found out the advantages of an English education. Some boys succeeded in obtaining employment in Government offices; this gave a great stimulus to the zeal of both parents and children. Gradually Arabs also began to send their sons. During the past four years the institution, which is called the Aden Residency School, has been freely attended[1] by children of all classes and creeds. Banians, Khojahs, Mehmons, Borahs, Jews, Arabs, Parsis, and native Christians avail themselves largely of the institution, and the standard of instruction has been raised. It is now the fifth standard, according to the rules in force in the Bombay Presidency. The Elementary Histories of England, India, and Rome; Euclid as far as the first book; Geography, Arithmetic, and Algebra, comprise the subjects taught.

[1] Present attendance, 1877 :—

Parsis,	9
Banians,	8
Khojas,	2
Mehmons,	7
Borahs,	5
Jews,	3
Arabs,	5
Other Mahomedans,	15
Native Christians,	6
	60

The annual expenditure on account of establishment, etc., amounts to about Rs.4500 per annum. Fees are paid by all pupils, the better class being charged R.1, 8 as., and the remainder 4 as. only per head per mensem. Children of very indigent parents are admitted free of charge.

The average daily attendance now reaches sixty-three. Parsis seem to have the greatest aptitude for learning, Banians the least. The latter leave the school after learning enough Guzerati to enable them to keep their accounts, and English as far as the Primer. It is a very exceptional thing to hear a Banian talking English, and in the case of Parsis the reverse is the case. The advantages which an institution of this kind affords to an isolated Settlement like Aden are great. It enables Indian officials and settlers to send for their families, which they used not to do formerly, and there is consequently more contentment and less temptation to irregular habits. The poorer classes, even of Arabs, see their way to comparative affluence by educating their sons for Government employ. Within the past ten years, twenty-four boys educated in Aden have been successful in obtaining service in Government offices as clerks, etc. A knowledge of English is indispensable to the better class of traders in their dealings with European firms in Aden and elsewhere.

It is curious that no Somali has ever been known to acquire much beyond a colloquial knowledge of English, but the race are exceedingly expert in speaking, and enunciate with an excellent accent. It is probably the facility with which, in following their vagabond habits, they can acquire sufficient knowledge of English for their own purposes, that deters them from going deeper into the study.

An Arabic Government School was founded at the same time as the English. It is partly supported by Government and partly by the Municipal Fund.[1] About 130 boys and 20 girls attend daily, and are taught gratuitously. The instruction imparted is, as is customary in Mahomedan countries, through the medium of the Koran, but latterly secular reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic have been introduced with considerable success. Girls seldom learn to do more than read, as they leave school at eight years old.

Private Schools.—There are also many private schools in the

[1] Government, ... Rs.480
Municipal Fund, ... 820
Total per annum, . 1300

Settlement; one is usually attached to each Masjid, the mulah teaching a knot of fifteen to twenty boys for the small remuneration of 2 as. monthly per head. Nothing but repetition of the Koran is taught in these schools. At Maala village there is a similar school which is attended by Somalis; writing is taught at this establishment, which is held in a wretched hovel.

The Jews have three schools, managed by private individuals, where religious instruction only is imparted. In the aggregate 125 boys attend these institutions.

Military Schools.—The military schools attached to regiments and batteries it is not necessary here to refer to.

Roman Catholic Mission and Convent Schools.—The members of the Roman Catholic Mission have always opened their doors to orphans and castaway boys of all creeds. At present they maintain fifteen boys at their own expense, whom they instruct in reading and writing English. An attempt is also made to teach them to work, but not with much success. The boys, after a few years' residence, leave the mission.[1] There is a Catholic Convent school under the direction of the ladies of the Good Shepherd.

This school affords European families facilities for obtaining a complete education. The school-rooms and dormitories occupied by the boarders are large and well ventilated. Pupils of all denominations are received, and proselytising is not practised.

There is an orphanage into which the children of British soldiers and employés are received. A second orphanage for liberated slave-girls is also established, Government paying a small sum monthly for each girl. A good plain elementary education is given to these children.

POST-OFFICE.—In January 1839, the month and year of the occupation of Aden by the British, a post-office was opened in the Settlement, and an establishment, with two clerks and four peons, was sanctioned. One of the assistants to the Political Agent, or the civil surgeon, performed the duties of postmaster, and received for so doing Rs. 100 per mensem.

In 1857 the Aden office was placed under the director-general of post-offices in India, a postmaster was appointed on Rs. 250 per mensem, and one clerk was added to the establishment. Up to this time there had been no office at Steamer Point, and when mails were received or despatched, a clerk and peon used to come down

[1] A new house is being constructed as a Normal School for boarders and day scholars.

for the purpose from the Crater, the mails being carried on camels. After the opening of the overland route, this arrangement proved inconvenient, and accordingly the head-quarters of the office were removed to Steamer Point. A building of mud and plaster was constructed, but the growing wants of the Settlement led in 1868 to the building of a more commodious structure, which was completed at a cost of about Rs.20,000 (much improved and enlarged in 1877).

Mails, Local.—There is a local mail between Steamer Point, the Isthmus, and the Crater; it is carried by a runner, who leaves the head office at 11 A.M. daily, and the Crater, or camp office, as it is called, at 3 P.M. About 400 letters per mensem are carried by this service, which is charged for at Indian inland postage rates.

Mails, Ocean.—Correspondence passing direct between Aden and other places is governed by the same condition as correspondence between India and other places, except in respect of letters conveyed by French packet, which in some instances are charged at a higher rate when sent from Aden. Correspondence from Aden to India, or any Indian post-office, is charged at the rates shown in the schedule to the *Indian Postal Guide.* Correspondence from Aden to Zanzibar by British packet is subject to the rates applicable to Indian correspondence, but prepayment is compulsory.

Mail Steamers.—Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company.—This company carries the mails to and from the United Kingdom and India, as also the Continental, China, and Australian mails, arriving in Aden, from the West, on Wednesdays or Thursdays, and from the East on Mondays or Tuesdays. Two steamers arrive from the East, and two from the West, every alternate week. These vessels seldom remain more than six hours in port.

Messageries Maritimes Company.—This company carries a mail to the Continent and China, as also to Mauritius, Réunion, and the Seychelles. Their steamers arrive every alternate Saturday from the East and West, making a stay of about twelve hours in port. A steamer also arrives from Mauritius every fourth Thursday, and awaits the arrival of both outward and homeward bound vessels of the same company, leaving for Mauritius every fourth Monday.

British India Steam Navigation Company.—This company carries a mail between Aden and Zanzibar, being due every fourth Friday, and leaving the following Friday. Letters for Mozambique and Cape of Good Hope go by this route. The British India Steam Navigation Company also conveys mails from Karachi and the Persian Gulf to Aden, arriving once every month.

Rubattino Company.—This company carries a nominal mail between Bombay and Genoa, arriving in Aden from both sides about the 9th of each month.

Austrian Lloyd's.—This company carries a nominal mail between Bombay and Trieste, arriving in Aden once every six weeks.

Postage.—The rates of postage to the principal parts of the world from Aden are as under:—

	Vid Brindisi.	*Vid* Southampton.	
	Annas.	Annas.	Per oz.
To United Kingdom,	6	5	½
,, United States of America,	,,	,,	,,
,, Continent of Europe,	,,	,,	,,
,, Canada,	7½	6½	½

	Annas.	Per oz.
To Egypt,	5	½
,, India,	4	,,
,, China,	4	,,
,, Australia,	5	,,
,, Zanzibar,	1	,,
,, Cape of Good Hope,	8	,,

The Overland Parcel Post has been established from the United Kingdom to Aden, but not as yet *vice versâ*, though its introduction is promised shortly.

Banghy parcels are carried by the Rubattino and other companies at Indian inland rates.

Covers.—The average number of covers received and despatched during the past five years has been as under:—

	Received.	Despatched.
Letters,	97,506	98,651
Papers,	51,855	21,897
Books,	5,958	2,533
Parcels,	144	56

It must be recollected that upwards of 12,000 passengers pass through Aden in the course of a year, and a considerable number of the letters have been received and posted by them. Moreover, Aden is visited by many men-of-war of all nations, especially British, and a large number of letters are received and despatched by the crews of these vessels.

The same remark applies to papers reposted; those despatched

would not otherwise amount to so large a number, there being no local newspaper.

Stamps.—During the past five years an average of Rs.25,600 worth of ordinary, and Rs.6800 worth of service stamps, has been sold per annum to the public, and an average yearly sum of Rs.6000 has been collected in cash. The value of ordinary stamps sold shows a yearly increase of about Rs.2000 during the same period. A large number of stamps is sold to the passengers and crews of vessels.

Expenditure.—The average yearly disbursements for five years amount to Rs.10,400; there has therefore been an average yearly credit in favour of the Aden office of about Rs.28,000, out of which about two-thirds would go to the British, and one-third to the Indian post-office, to cover the mail subsidies.

PART V.—POLITICAL RELATIONS AND HISTORY.

THE ARAB TRIBES WE HAVE TO DEAL WITH AT ADEN.

Name of the State.	In Subsidiary Alliance, or Feudatory.	Stipend (Annual).	Estimated Population of District.	Schools.	Prevailing Diseases.	Gross Revenue.	Military Force.	Transit Dues or not.	Principal Articles of Production and Manufacture.
		German crowns.							
Abdali,	In subsidiary alliance.	6,492	15,000	One in the capital at Hautah.	Small-pox and consumption to some extent. The Yemen ulcer is also common among the tribes.	45,000	There are no standing armies among the tribes in the vicinity of Aden. Every adult male is a soldier when occasion requires.	Yes.	*In the Low Country.*—Jowari (red and white). Sesame from which oil is manufactured. Cotton to a small extent. Madder, for dyeing purposes. Wars, or bastard saffron. A little indigo, with which the favourite Arab cloth is dyed. *In the Hills.*—Wheat, madder, coffee. A considerable quantity of wax and honey from the Amir country. Aloes, dragon's blood, wooden rafters, ghee, and dates.
Fadhli,		2,160	25,000	There are no regular schools among the Bedaween tribes, except a few Madaras in Sayyid villages where the Koran is taught.		20,000		No.	
Akrabi,		480	800			2,000		Yes.	
Subaihi,		1,182	20,000			..		No.	
Haushabi,		648	6,000			7,000		Yes.	
Alawi,		360	1,500			6,000		Yes.	
Amir,		50	30,000			25,000		Yes.	
Yaffai,		250	35,000			20,000		No.	

N.B.—The map which prefaces this part shows the geographical position and limits of the territories occupied by the above tribes.

The Abdali Tribe.—The district inhabited by this tribe is about 33 miles long by 8 broad, lying in a north-north-westerly direction from Aden. It is usually called Lahej, and the capital, Al-Hautah, is situated about 21 miles from the barrier-gate. Here the Sultan and his family reside.

The country, to within three or four miles of Al-Hautah, is a desert, covered here and there with a thick bâbul jungle. About Al-Hautah cultivation commences, and, with a trifling amount of labour, red and white jowarî, sesame, vegetables, grass, and a little cotton, are grown. There are also several groves of date-palms, and badâm or wild almond trees.

The people are the most civilised but least warlike of all the

tribes in south-western Arabia. By the treaty[1] of 1849 the Sultan charges an *ad valorem* duty of 2 per cent. on all articles which pass out of or enter into Aden through his territories, except grass, kurbî, wood, and vegetables, which are free. It has been calculated that he makes about Rs. 11,000 a year by this duty alone.

Since the accession of the present Sultan no cause of disagreement has arisen between the British Government and this tribe. The number of the tribe is about 8000[2] souls, and of fighting men 800.

The late Sultan, Fadhl bin Mohsin, was present in Bombay during the Duke of Edinburgh's visit in February 1870.

The Fadhli Tribe.—This tribe has a sea-board of 100 miles, extending eastward from the boundary of the Abdali.

The country is divided into two large districts,—the lowlands of Abyan, and the highlands to the north-east.

Abyan produces red and white jowarî and sesame.

On the highlands wheat is also raised, and myrrh-trees grow in abundance. These limestone heights strikingly resemble the incense-bearing ranges of the opposite coast.

Shograh is the chief sea-port; it is situated 60 or 70 miles from Aden. A considerable amount of coffee, grown in the Yaffai country, is exported from this port, which now consists of only fifteen houses. The place was destroyed by our troops in January 1866, but is being gradually rebuilt.

The Fadhlis are proud, warlike, and independent, possessing in a high degree the virtues and vices of the true Bedâwin.

Transit dues[3] were formerly charged on goods from Aden as follows:—On every camel-load of spices, cloth, and iron, $\$\frac{1}{4}$; on other articles, $\$\frac{1}{8}$ per camel-load.

Since the conclusion of the treaty of 1867 the tribe have adhered to their engagements. The total number of fighting men is about 6700.

The Akrabi Tribe.—The coast-line of the district inhabited by this tribe stretches from Bir Ahmed to Ras Amran. The Akrabis have one village, about two miles inland, called Bir Ahmed. The people have a high reputation for courage. The Shaikh's income, chiefly derived from transit duties, amounts to about $600 per

[1] For this and other engagements see Aicheson's *Treaties*, vol. vii.

[2] The population given in the table is that of the district, not the numbers of the tribe.

[3] Abrogated by treaty of 1872.

annum, exclusive of his stipend. Since 1857 we have always had friendly relations with the Akrabi. There are about 300 fighting men in the tribe.

Other Tribes.—A list of the other tribes has been given, but as they do not reside in the immediate vicinity of Aden it is unnecessary to refer more particularly to them.

A full account of all the neighbouring tribes will be found on reference to a memorandum drawn up by Captain W. F. Prideaux, Bombay Staff Corps, dated 20th January 1872, printed by the Government of India in its selections,[1]—from which most of the above information has been abstracted. See also vol. vii., Treaties, Engagements, etc., Calcutta, 1876.

CHIEFS HAVING POLITICAL RELATIONS WITH THE ADEN RESIDENCY WHO ARE ENTITLED TO SALUTES.—The following chiefs in the neighbourhood, and having political relations with this Residency, are entitled to salutes[2] as under :—

CHIEFS.	SALUTE.	REMARKS.
	Guns.	
Sultan of the Abdali, . . .	9	Attached to chiefship.
Sultan of the Fadhli, . . .	9	Ditto.
Omar bin Sallah bin Mahomed Nakeeb of Makalla, ...	12	Personal.
Awadh bin Omar Al Kaieti, . .	12	Ditto.
Sultan of Socotra, ... (Ali bin Abdallah bin Salem bin Saad bin Towaree-bin Afreer.)	9	Ditto.

The Abdali and Fadhli have been already mentioned.

Makalla and Shehr.[3]—Makalla and Shehr are two towns or rather ports on the Hadhramaut coast of Arabia, the chiefs of which have been independent since the occupation of Aden, and have always entertained the most friendly relations with the British Government. For the past few years these chiefs have been at war with one another, but there now appears some prospect of a settlement of the long-standing dispute between them, through the mediation of the Resident of Aden.

Socotra.—An engagement has recently been entered into by the

[1] No. VIII.

[2] *Gazette of India*, No. 3, D.C.P., Foreign Department Notification, dated 13th January 1877.

[3] See Ptolemy I. lxx. ; also Welsted, vol. ii. pp. 427, 435.

British Government with the chief of this island, in which he binds himself, his heirs, and successors, among other matters, to protect any vessel, Foreign or British, with the crew, passengers, and cargo, that may be wrecked on the island of Socotra, or its dependencies, and he receives an annual stipend of $360 for the above purpose.

SOMALI AND OTHER AFRICAN TRIBES.—*Somali.*—The country inhabited by the Somalis extends from several degrees south of Cape Guardafui nearly as far as the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb. The origin of the Somal is not known with certainty, but it seems probable they are descended from Arab settlers, who came from Hadhramaut, and, intermarrying with the Galla inhabitants, raised a new family. They themselves assign a period of between four or five centuries to this immigration. Some of the Mahra tribe who occupy the opposite Arabian coast have a tradition that the Somal are descended from them, and call them 'Beni am,' or cousins.[1] The name of Somal and the time when it was first used is not known. Their language is composed almost wholly of words derived from the Arabic and Galla languages. The original founders of these people were two or, as some say, three[2] in number; at any rate there are two great divisions of the Somali family. These are called by the people themselves the 'Buri' or eastern, and the 'Gulbedh' or western. These are known and recognised by the Arabs as 'Mâkhar' and 'Dâbir' respectively. The former includes the Mijjerthayn, Warsangalli, and Dulbhanta tribes; the latter, the Habr Awal, Habr Tul Jaala, and Habr Gerhajis, etc. These again are numerously subdivided. It is chiefly members of the western tribes that visit Aden, where they bring from Ankor, Karam, Antarad, and Berbera, sheep, cattle, gums, myrrh, ivory, feathers, etc.; and take away corn, dates, iron, lead, beads, cotton goods, etc. The principal port is Berbera (possibly the ancient Mosyllon of the Periplus of the Erythræan Sea), situated about 150 miles due south of Aden. The Somal are Shaffai moslems. The Mijjerthayn is the only tribe under the sway of a Sultan; other tribes have nominal heads whose authority is but slight. 'Abbans' or protectors have to be taken by all strangers visiting this coast.

Within the past few years the Egyptians have laid claim to this part of Africa, and have occupied Berbera; they have also sent an expedition to Harrar, the capital of the Galla country.

[1] Miles, *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, vol. xlii. p. 61 *et seq.*

[2] Rigby, *Journal of the Transactions of the Bombay Geographical Society*, 1849.

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Somalis are very numerous in the Settlement of Aden. They are a wild, high-spirited, yet timorous race, and in spite of the close contact into which they are brought with western civilisation, but seldom seem to profit by their experience. The men are little inclined for hard work, but they make excellent boatmen, carriage-drivers, cow-boys, punkah-pullers, etc. Every one who has visited Aden must be familiar with the half-naked, dark-coloured, well-built, and generally pleasant-featured savages, who, with hair stained yellow, rowed him ashore or drove him to visit the tanks, and the small boy of the same race has afforded him an hour's amusement with his sportive tricks in the water and perpetual cry of 'I dive, I dive.' The women, on the contrary, are very industrious, and are seldom idle, employing themselves in weaving mats, and in their domestic concerns. Many also take service as 'ayahs' or female servants.

Some account of the Somalis will be found in Burton's *First Footsteps in Eastern Africa*, Miles *On the neighbourhood of Bunder Marayah* (volume xlii. of the Royal Geographical Society's Journal), also in the Journals of the Bombay Geographical Society,[1] which contain interesting memoirs by Rigby and Cruttenden.

NOTE.—For a description of the mode of living in Aden, and other particulars, see under Food, Dress, Domestic Ceremonies, Ornaments, Part II.

Other African Tribes.—The only other African tribe that frequents Aden in any numbers is the Dankali, who occupy the country in the vicinity of Zaila and the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb. They are somewhat like Shohas in appearance, and are a very lively and industrious race; they do not, however, take service, either public or private, but confine themselves either to trade, or some such independent business, as suppliers of ballast, and owners of cargo boats.

Abyssinian, Galla, Nubian, and other African tribes, more especially those from Zanzibar, Johanna, etc., are of course represented.

HISTORY.—The authorities from which this has been compiled are given in the Appendix, but as most of the information, up to 1858 at least, was carefully collected by Colonel Playfair in his *History of Yemen*, it has not been considered necessary to give the particular authority for each passage. Any matter not to be found in Colonel Playfair's valuable work will be specially noted.

[1] Vols. vii. and ix.

History.—The history of Aden is so inseparably bound up with that of Yemen, it is impossible in tracing the annals of the Settlement from the earliest times to avoid following, to a certain extent, that province through the various vicissitudes of fortune that have overtaken it.

Of the earliest inhabitants of those countries which lie at and near the mouth of the Red Sea, no records now exist; there is little doubt, however, that they belonged to a branch of that great Cushite race whose extinction is perhaps the most wonderful of all the vicissitudes of history. They were of kindred race to the giant builders in the plain of Shinar. The influence of a neighbouring Semite people gradually made itself felt among the Cushite race inhabiting southern Arabia, and eventually the amalgamation (or whatever it may be appropriately termed) took place, most probably about the time of the prophet Isaiah,[1] who refers to them under the names of Seba the son of Cush, and Sheba the son of Joktan. From the lofty stature of the people of Seba, and from other indications, Caussin de Percevale thinks that the people of Ad, famed in early traditions as the earliest inhabitants of Yemen, and the builders of the celebrated Irem Dhât-al-Imad[2] in Abyan, were no other than the Cushite Sabæans. The amalgamation took place about 700 years B.C., and Lieutenant-Colonel Prideaux, from whose interesting pamphlet[3] the above information has been collated, is of opinion that the era of the Himyarites must be attributed to this period, and that the designation of Sabæans or Shabæans was later on changed to that of Himyarites,[4] probably from their practice of inscribing and daubing with red their public buildings. The form of government was monarchical, and, as far as has been ascertained, this dynasty commenced to decline after the destruction of the dam of Mârib, which took place approximately in A.D. 120.

The expedition of Ælius Gallus appears to have been the first invasion of Yemen by a foreign power, and its ill-starred result is

[1] Isaiah xlv. 14.

[2] A village of that name still exists near Aden, but no local tradition is attached to the spot.

[3] 'On some recent discoveries in South-western Arabia,' by Captain W. F. Prideaux, B.C.S., F.R.G.S.; reprinted from the *Transactions of Biblical Archæology*, 1873.

[4] Wellsted supposes the word to be derived from Homeiri, the Homeritii of Ptolemy. Wright suggests as its origin, Hamyar, the first of the descendants of Kahtan, who reigned over the whole of Yemen, and who, he says, was so called from the colour of the garments he constantly wore

now hardly a matter of fable. The long line of succession of the Himyarite kings presents but little interest except to the archæologist. We first find Aden mentioned as one of the places where churches were erected by the Christian embassy sent by the Emperor Constantius in A.D. 342.[1] At the request of the Emperor Justin, Caleb, the sovereign of Abyssinia, despatched an army to Yemen for the punishment of Dthu Nowas,[2] one of the last of the Himyarite kings, whose persecution of the Christians had become famous. This was about A.D. 525, when Yemen fell an easy prey to the Abyssinians, who were again ousted by the Persians during the reign of Kisra Anowsharwan about A.D. 575. For some time Yemen was filled with violence and bloodshed, and it was not until A.D. 595, in the reign of Kisra Parwîs, that it was again brought firmly under the rule of the Persians, Aden, with the neighbouring ports, at the same time passing completely into their possession. No ruler of note seems to have governed Yemen as Viceroy, until Badan, who was appointed shortly before the commencement of Islamism, about A.D. 606.

In the tenth year of the Hijirah, some disturbances having broken out in Yemen, Mahomed sent his lieutenant Ali thither at the head of 300 horsemen, and Badan, who had previously acknowledged the supremacy of the prophet, gladly accepted his assistance in restoring order. About this time the two rival prophets Moosailmah and Al-Aswad sprung up in Yemen, and on the death of Badan, which occurred in 632, the latter seized upon the government, but he was subsequently murdered by a party of Mahomed's friends. Moosailmah then managed to possess himself of the throne, but he was defeated by Khalid, who was sent by Aboo Bakr, the successor of Mahomed. Soon after this Akramah Aboo Sahl visited Aden, where his presence served to put to flight several turbulent persons who had been endeavouring to instigate the Himyarites to revolt. After the death of Ali, Yemen became subject to the Caliphs of the house of Umayyah, and remained so until 749, when it passed into the hands of the Abbasides. Daud ibn Abd-al-Majid was at that time appointed Governor of Aden. In 905 Yemen came under the sway of the Kârâmite Caliphs, and in 932 it threw off its allegiance and became independent, its rulers assuming the style and title of Imam. The name of the first of his dynasty was Asad ibn Yafur.

[1] But see Ezekiel, chap. xxvii. verse 23. Also Forster's *Historical Geography of Arabia*, vol. i. p. 20. Aden is no doubt the *Arabias Emporion* of Ptolemy.

[2] This is disputed by some Arab historians, Hamza, p. 34; Abulfeda, p. 10; Procopius de Bel. Pers. lib. i. c. 30.

In 1038 we find Aden in the possession of one Zahir Ayyah, who appointed as its governor Sahli, but Ibn Omar, chief of Lahej, suddenly attacked and captured the place, putting the governor to death. It continued under the successors of Ibn Omar until 1137, when it was captured by Belal ibn Yari Mahomed. In the same year, however, it was retaken by Saba, a descendant of Ibn Omar. Sultan Al Mansur Hatim, a rival of the then Imam of Yemen, obtained possession of Aden by treachery, and his family continued in possession of the fortress until expelled by the Imam Mazaffar Shamso-ud-Dîn in 1249. During the next few years Aden continued to be the scene of perpetual struggles, and in 1325 we find it under the rule of Abd-al-Hassan Ali, the then Imam of Yemen. Until 1454 Aden continued under the government of the Imams of Yemen, when it was seized by two brothers, one of whom, Malik A'li, subsequently succeeded to the imamship, and it was his nephew, A'bd-al-Wahhâb, who constructed the aqueduct to convey water from Bîr Mahait into Aden (a distance of 16,000 yards), the ruins of which exist to the present day; this was about the year 1500. Towards the end of the fourteenth century the Portuguese commenced their voyages to this part of the world, and in 1503 Aden was visited by Ludovico de Varthema, whose quaint account corresponds with contemporary Arabian history.

In 1513 Don Alphonso d'Albuquerque, who had been despatched to the Red Sea in the hope of his being able to aid the Abyssinians against the Mahomedans, was also charged by King Emmanuel to endeavour to obtain the stronghold of Aden by capture. His expedition started from India on the 18th February 1513, and consisted of twenty ships manned by 1700 Portuguese and 800 Indian sailors. It arrived at Aden on Easter Eve, and on the following morning troops were landed with scaling ladders. They succeeded in capturing an outwork, where many of the defenders were slain, and thirty-nine pieces of ordnance were taken; but after a siege of four days they were repulsed with great slaughter, and Albuquerque, having plundered and burnt the vessels in the harbour, and cannonaded the town, sailed for the Red Sea. He first touched at Mokha, in the hope of being able to unite with the Abyssinian Christians against the Mahomedans, but being unsuccessful, he proceeded to the island of Kameran, where he wintered.

Notwithstanding the gallant defence of the Governor of Aden, the Amîr Morjan (styled by the Portuguese authors Mora, Morzán), this attack filled the inhabitants of Yemen with the greatest consternation.

In 1516 Soleiman, an officer of Kansu-al-Ghurî, the Mameluke Sultan of Egypt, attacked Aden, but was repulsed with severe loss.

Later in the same year, on the arrival of Luarez De Abergaria, the Governor, making a virtue of necessity, owing to the defences being somewhat injured by Rais Suleiman, offered the keys to the Portuguese, but the latter did not take actual possession, and on the return of Luarez shortly after, the defences having been repaired, the Governor Amîr Morjan refused to deliver up the city.

About 1517 Selim I., Sultan of Turkey, after the overthrow of the Mameluke power in Egypt, formed the design of seizing Aden on account of its excellent harbour, whence all the Turkish expeditions against the Portuguese and towards India might emanate; but it was reserved for his son Soleiman, surnamed the Magnificent, to carry out the project, and the expedition was intrusted to the Rais Soleiman, who was then an old man. In August 1538, the fleet arrived at Aden, and the Sultan, whose name was U'mar bin Dâud, was invited to do homage to the Grand Seigneur through his representative the Pasha Soleiman. On his arrival on board of the latter's vessel he was treacherously seized and hung. Previous to this many soldiers had been sent on shore, lying on beds as if sick, and they had been provided with quarters in the town. These, as soon as the chief was put to death, seized the city, and Soleiman proceeded on his voyage to India. After his repulse at Goa, he called in at Aden on the 5th December 1538, and being desirous of securing the post, he caused a hundred pieces of artillery, great and small, to be landed from the fleet, together with a large quantity of ammunition, and a garrison of 500 men. From this time, in consequence of the submission of Mokha and Zabîd, the whole coast of Arabia acknowledged the power of Soleiman the Magnificent, and his armies penetrating inland obtained possession of Yemen; this was in 1539. Some time previous to 1551 the inhabitants of Aden rebelled and handed the place over to the Portuguese, from whom it was recaptured in that year by Peri Pasha, the Capidan of Egypt, and a considerable garrison provided with the necessary means of defence was left for its protection. In 1609 Aden was visited by Captain Sharkey of the East India Company's ship 'Ascension.' He was at first well received, but subsequently kept in durance for six weeks until the Governor had obtained as much out of the ship as he could, when he was released, but two of his companions were detained until the sum of $2000 should be paid. This was refused, whereupon the two Englishmen were sent to the Pasha at Sana'a.

Captain Sharkey proceeded to Mokha, which was then the great mart for the trade between India and Egypt. The Turkish Governor was courteous and liberal, and permitted foreigners to trade without molestation. In the following year Admiral Sir Henry Middleton was sent on a trading voyage by the East India Company. He visited Aden on the 10th November, where he found as Governor Yafa Pasha. The 'Peppercorn' was left behind at Aden while Sir Henry proceeded to Mokha in the 'Darling.' At both ports the expedition was treacherously treated; but in 1612, when Captain Saris visited Mokha, he was well received, and the Governor and chief men of the city begged that the treatment experienced by Sir H. Middleton, at the hands of the former Governor, might be forgotten. Two years after this, Van den Brock visited Aden, at the instance of the Dutch East India Company, and was well received. He subsequently, however, obtained a hint that he had better leave, as the resident merchants viewed his arrival with considerable jealousy; he accordingly proceeded to Shehr, where he succeeded in establishing a factory. In the following year he visited Mokha, but was obliged eventually to return unsuccessful to India, as the Pasha of Yemen viewed the advances of the Dutch with distrust. In 1618 Captain Shilling, in the 'Anne Royal,' by the desire of Sir Thomas Roe, the ambassador at the court of the Mogul, proceeded to Mokha, and succeeded in obtaining permission to establish a factory there.

In 1630 the Turks were compelled to evacuate Yemen, which fell again into the hands of the Imams, and a descendant of the family of Barakât, who claimed descent from Ali, the son-in-law of Mahomed, was placed on the throne. Aden appears to have also passed into the possession of its former masters, for in 1708 we find the French visiting the port, which is described as being under the control of the Imam al Mahdî.

In 1735 the Abdali Sultan of Lahej, who was then practically independent of the Imams, first possessed himself of Aden. His rapacity and extortions soon ruined the port. He was killed in 1742, and was succeeded by his son A'bd-al-Karîm, who was a wise and benevolent prince. In 1753 A'bd-al-Rab, the heroic chief of Hajarîa, blockaded Aden, but was bought off, and in the same year A'bd-al-Karîm died, and was succeeded by his son A'bd-al-Hadi.

In 1771 Aden was stormed by Azab Makhi, chief of the Azaibees, who retained it for two days, when he was driven out. After

A'bd-al-Hadi came Fadhl, his brother, who died in 1792; he was succeeded by another brother Ahmed, who was visited by Mr. Salt in 1809, and by Captain Haines of the Indian Navy in 1820. Sir Home Popham, in 1802, concluded a treaty of friendship and commerce with this chief, who died in 1827. His nephew and successor, Mohsin bin Fadhl, was a man of a different stamp, being inhospitable, deceitful, avaricious, and unscrupulous.

In 1829 the Court of Directors entertained the notion of making Aden a coaling station, but the idea was abandoned owing to the difficulty of obtaining labour.

In 1833 an attempt was made to gain possession of Aden by Turkchee Bilmas, but his demands were refused and his emissaries slain. It was visited again by Captain Haines in 1835, and in the following year the Fadhlis attacked and sacked the town.

In consequence of an outrage committed on the passengers and crew of a buggalow wrecked near Aden, an expedition was despatched against the place by the Government of Bombay, and in January 1838 Captain Haines demanded and obtained restitution; it was further arranged that the peninsula should be ceded to the British. Owing to the treacherous behaviour of the Sultan's son, Captain Haines left, but returned in October, authorised to complete the cession. The negotiations were anything but friendly, and finally the port was blockaded.

In January 1839 a force consisting of Her Majesty's steamer 'Volage,' twenty-eight guns, and 'Cruizer,' ten guns, with 300 Europeans and 400 Native troops, under Major Baillie, bombarded and took the place by assault.[1] The loss on the British side was fifteen, and on that of the Arabs 150 men killed and wounded. Aden thus fell into the hands of the British, being the first new accession of territory in the reign of Queen Victoria, and treaties of peace and friendship were entered into with the surrounding tribes. In June the Sultan received the first payment of his stipend of 541

[1] In regard to the condition of Aden at the time of the British occupation, Captain Haines says:—'The little village (formerly the great city) of Aden is now reduced to the most exigent condition of poverty and neglect. In the reign of Constantine this town possessed unrivalled celebrity for its impenetrable fortifications, its flourishing commerce, and the glorious haven it offered to vessels from all quarters of the globe. But how lamentable is the present contrast! With scarce a vestige of its former proud superiority, the traveller sees and values it only for its capabilities, and regrets the barbarous cupidity of that government under whose injudicious management it has fallen so low.'—*MS. Journal*, pp. 44, 49.

German crowns (equivalent to the original purchase-money, and various small sums paid to surrounding chiefs, formerly chargeable to the revenues of Aden), which Government conferred on him so long as he should remain faithful.

The Abdali proved fickle, however, and attempted, in conjunction with the Fadhli, to retake Aden in November, but was defeated. Shograh was blockaded on account of the share the Fadhli chief had in the affair.

In 1840 a second attack was made by the united tribes in the pay of the Sultan of Lahej, but it was repelled with heavy loss.

A third attempt to take Aden occurred on the 5th July 1841. In this attack the Abdali and Fadhli were concerned, but they were driven off with great loss.

Many atrocities continued to be perpetrated, and it became necessary to dislodge the enemy from Bîr Ahmed. This was done with but small loss, by a force of 300 Europeans and 200 Native Infantry, with a detachment of Royal Artillery. Shaikh O'thman was also destroyed, and the Fadhli coast was blockaded. The Fadhli chief implored forgiveness, and the Abdali entered into a new engagement of peace and friendship; the latter's stipend, which had been stopped, was restored in February 1844.

In 1846 a fanatic named Sayyid Isma'il, assisted by the neighbouring tribes, after preaching a Jihâd or religious war, attacked Aden, but was repulsed by a well-directed fire from the line of works and the gun-boats in harbour; dissensions then broke out in the Sayyid's army, which melted rapidly away.

Sultan Mohsin bin Fadhl died at Lahej in November 1847; he was succeeded by his son Ahmed, who was very friendly to the British, and who visited Aden in 1848, but unfortunately died in 1849, and was succeeded by his brother Ali. Soon after his accession a new treaty was concluded; it bears date May 1849, and was ratified by Lord Dalhousie, Governor-General of India, in October of the same year.

In May 1850 the first of a series of atrocities which, for many years, complicated the relations of the British with the Arab tribes, occurred. A boat's crew, of the Honourable Company's ship 'Auckland,' were attacked on the north coast of the harbour; one man was killed, and a boy wounded. Shortly afterwards a sepoy, of the 3d Madras Native Infantry, was wounded by a fanatic near the Barrier Gate; the intended assassin was shot by the sentry.

In February a party of officers, on an excursion in the Lahej

territory, were attacked by night at Wahât, a Sayyid village. Captain Mylne, Commissariat officer, was murdered, and Lieutenant M'Pherson, 78th Highlanders, was seriously wounded. The assassin obtained refuge in the Fadhli territory. A few days later a man attacked Lieutenant Delisser, 78th Highlanders, on the road, but was killed by that officer with his own 'jambiah' (dagger).

In June, a sepoy, of the 3d Madras Native Infantry, was wounded outside the Barrier Gate; and in July the mate and a seaman of the ship 'Sons of Commerce,' which was wrecked near Aden, were murdered by the Abdali; but the Sultan executed the instigator of this crime, and the tribe continued on terms of intimacy with the British; whereas the Fadhli's stipend was stopped from the time Captain Mylne's murderer took refuge with him, and Bîr Ahmad was blockaded for the share its inhabitants had in the murder of the seamen of the 'Auckland.' Depredations on the road continued, and Shograh was blockaded. In 1855 the Fadhli expressed a desire to make peace, and the blockade of Shograh was raised.

Fearing his influence would be diminished, Sultan A'li, the Abdali, did his best to prevent any understanding being come to, but the end of 1856 found the British free from any aggressions on the part of the neighbouring tribes. In the opening of the year 1857 a bond was entered into by the Fadhli, to the effect that Captain Mylne's murderers had been expelled, and should never again find refuge in his territories, and he solemnly engaged to restrain his people from plundering on the roads. Soon after the Akrabi tendered their submission and sued for friendship.

Sultan A'li, the Abdali, continued to give much annoyance; he imposed an exorbitant toll upon the well of Shaikh O'thman, on which the town and shipping were, to a great extent, dependent for water. He was taken severely to task by the Bombay Government, and eventually the matter was settled.

In January 1858 Sultan A'li wrote a letter, stating that he had decided to close his country until, as he put it, 'Government should come to its senses.'

In February three complaints were made by the Fadhli against the Abdali of plundering; a few days later another complaint was preferred, that the latter had seized a consignment of coffee, the property of a British subject. Restitution was demanded, and as it was refused, all communication was broken off with the Abdali, and his stipend was further discontinued.

In March[1] the Sultan occupied, in force, the village of Shaikh O'thman, when he filled up the well and committed other acts of hostility. This could no longer be endured, and on the 13th March an adequate force of artillery and infantry, together with a party of seamen from the Honourable Company's vessels of war, under the personal command of Brigadier Coghlan, Political Resident and Commandant, marched against Shaikh O'thman, which, after some resistance, was captured. Eventually a parley was demanded, and the Resident's demands were promised concession. These protestations were made apparently in good faith, and the request that he would not any longer continue hostile possession of the Lahej territory, was acceded to by the Resident.

After blowing up Shaikh O'thman, the force returned to Aden without a single casualty. The loss on the Arab side was reported at from thirty to forty.

On the following day supplies began to come into Aden, and in a short time Sultan Fadhl arrived in the Settlement to arrange the basis of a reconciliation.

It was not until the end of 1865 that the Arab tribes in the vicinity of Aden again began to give trouble.

The Fadhli, Sultan Ahmed bin Abdallah, grew exceedingly arrogant, and plundered right and left. To punish him, a force was despatched into the interior, consisting of four guns, twenty European and twenty native artillery, 200 of H.M. 109th Regiment, and 300 of the 1st Grenadier Native Infantry, under Colonel Woolcombe, and accompanied by the Political Resident.[2] The enemy were found at Bir Saeed, eight miles from Shaikh O'thman, where they were speedily routed. To show them that their own country was not inaccessible, the troops, after being slightly reinforced, marched into the Fadhli district, and destroyed the villages of A'salah, Al Koor, Amudiyah, etc., and returned to Aden within eleven days. Subsequently, Shograh was attacked from the seaward, and its forts destroyed. This brought the Fadhli to his senses, and an engagement was completed in May 1867 by which he bound himself to abstain from plunder, to maintain peace with the neighbours, and to give a hostage.

In 1868 the British Government became possessor, by purchase, of the peninsula of Little Aden, situated to the westward.

Sultan Ahmed bin Abdoollah, the Fadhli, died in February 1870.

[1] Aden Residency Records.
[2] Sir William Merewether.

In this year the Mansuri, a sub-tribe of the Subaihi, plundered some Kafilahs, and a portion of the Aden troop was sent against them. Eight or nine of the Bedawîns were killed, and two were taken prisoners. Three troopers of the Aden Troop were slightly wounded.

A short time after this event, the three chiefs of the principal sub-tribes of the Subaihi came into Aden, and agreements were entered into with them, by which, in consideration of the payment of 95 German crowns per mensem to them collectively, the roads which pass through their territories were declared free of transit dues. The chiefs further engaged to keep the roads secure and peaceful.

Towards the close of 1872 the effects of the advance of the Turkish conquests in Yemen began to be felt in the neighbourhood of Aden. Turkish officials sought to allure the chiefs of the tribes in the vicinity of Aden to make their submission to the Porte; but the Haushabi was the only Shaikh who responded to the invitation, and he only did so in the hope of gaining some advantage over the Abdali, with whom he was at enmity. Demonstrations were made by marching Turkish troops through the neighbouring districts.

The Alawi was forced into submission, and the Amir of Zhali was made prisoner. In May the Ottoman troops, at the invitation of the Haushabi, advanced to Shagah, on the borders of the Lahej district. Representations were at once made by Her Majesty's Government to the Porte, who gave assurances that the troops should be withdrawn; but this was not done, and the Haushabi, under the protection of the Turks, began to encroach on Lahej territory. In the meantime, Abdullah bin Mohsin, the eldest brother of the Lahej Sultan, together with his son and another brother, intrigued with the Turks, and invited them to occupy their fortified house at Al-Hautah. As the Turks accepted the offer of Abdullah Mohsin, the Government of India authorised the Resident to support the Lahej Sultan, but not to attack the Turks; and accordingly a force of 350 officers and men, consisting of artillery, cavalry, and infantry, occupied the Lahej territory. The Resident (Brigadier-General J. W. Schneider, C.B.) accompanied the troops, who were commanded by Colonel J. R. Mackenzie, of the 105th L. I. Still the Turks refused to withdraw, and two Ottoman men-of-war, with 1200 troops on board, entered the harbour, remaining until the arrival of H.M.'s ship 'Wolverine,' and their presence was doubtless intended as a demonstration in favour of

the Turkish detachment near Aden. In consequence of the representations made by Her Majesty's Government, the Turkish troops were eventually withdrawn in December, and Abdullah Mohsin, his son, and brother surrendered, and were sent into Aden as prisoners. The force moved on to Zaidah, but the Haushabi fled, and the Zaidah district was handed over to the Lahej Sultan, after which the troops returned to Aden. Subsequently, A'li bin Mani, the Haushabi Shaikh, tendered his submission to the Resident, and was forgiven.

The Amir of Zhali contrived to escape from the Turks, only to find his country in the hands of an usurper, whom he failed to oust.

The Alawi at once resumed friendly relations with the British. His son, who was kept in chains for many months as hostage by the Turks, was released at the desire of the British Government.

On the opening of the trading season of 1873, the Egyptians occupied Berbera, on the opposite Somali coast, whence most of the ghee[1] and live stock required for the use of the Aden garrison is brought, but up to the close of the year there was no diminution in the supplies coming from that port.

In 1875 the usurper, Mahomed Mussa'ad, still ruled in the Amir country, supported by the Turks, notwithstanding the assurances given by the Porte. The Egyptians closed the port of Bulhar, on the Somali coast, this year, contrary to the provisions of certain treaties concluded direct with the Somalis in 1827 and 1856; and early in 1876, at the end of the trading season, when the concession was valueless, and after repeated representations by the British Government to His Highness the Khedive, the port was declared open.

Towards the middle of the same year, the usurper in the Amir district, Mahomed Mussa'ad, fled, and threw off Turkish allegiance, but the country in the immediate vicinity of Aden continued undisturbed, and the Kafilah routes remained open; towards the end of the year the Turkish authorities restored A'li Mokbil to his Amirship, and almost vacated K'attaba.

During this year the Fadhli Sultan and the chief of the Yaffai came to a settlement regarding the royalty to be paid by the latter for the water of the river Na'aza, a dispute which had led to the withholding of the Y'affai's stipend for a period of more than two years.

[1] Clarified butter.

An arrangement was entered into in 1876 between the Akrabi and Abdali by which they mutually bound themselves not to give shelter to members of one tribe against the wishes of the ruler of the other.

PERIM.—Attached to the Government of Aden is the island of Perim, which it may not be out of place here to describe. It is called by the author of *The Periplus* the island of Diodorus, and is known among the Arabs as Mayoon. It is situated in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, a mile and a half from the Arabian, and eleven miles from the African coast. The formation is purely volcanic, and consists of long, low, and gradually sloping ranges of hills, surrounding an excellent and capacious harbour about a mile and a half in length, half a mile in breadth, and with a varying depth of from four to six fathoms in the best anchorages. The hills have formerly been intersected with bays and indentures, which in the course of time have been filled up with coral and sand, and are now low plains, scantily covered with salsola, sea lavender, wild mignonette, and other plants which delight in a salt sandy soil. These plains occupy about one-fourth of the island, and occur principally on the north side. The rocks, which are all igneous, are nowhere exposed, save where they dip perpendicularly into the sea; they are covered with a layer of volcanic mud of from 2 to 6 feet in depth, above which is another layer of loose boulders, or masses of black vesicular lava, in some places so thickly set as to resemble a rude pavement. The highest point of the island is 245 feet above the level of the sea.[1]

All endeavours to procure water have failed, and but a scanty supply is procurable from the adjacent coasts. Water-tanks were constructed, which used to be chiefly supplied from Aden, and it was proposed to erect reservoirs to collect the rain, but, as at Aden, a condensing apparatus was found more suitable.

Perim has never been permanently occupied by any nation save the British. Albuquerque landed upon it in 1513 on his return from the Red Sea, and having erected a high cross on an eminence, called the island Vera Cruz. It was again occupied for a short time by the pirates who frequented the mouth of the Red Sea, and who amassed considerable booty by plundering the native vessels engaged in the Indian trade. They formed a project of settling here and erecting strong fortifications, but having with much labour dug through the solid rock to a depth of fifteen fathoms in a fruitless

[1] Playfair.

search for water, they abandoned their design, and removed to Mary's Island, on the east side of Madagascar.[1]

In 1799 it was taken possession of by the East India Company, and a force under Lieutenant-Colonel Murray was sent from Bombay to garrison it, with the view of preventing the French troops, then engaged in the occupation of Egypt, from proceeding to India to effect a junction with Tippoo Sahib; but it was deemed untenable as a military position, and the Straits were too broad to be commanded by any batteries on the shore; the troops were accordingly withdrawn.[2]

In consequence of increasing steam navigation in the Red Sea the attention of the Indian Government was directed to the necessity of a lighthouse to facilitate the navigation of the Straits; Perim was consequently re-occupied in the beginning of 1857. The lighthouse was completed in 1861, and quarters were also built for a detachment of native infantry, fifty strong, who now garrison the island under the command of a European officer. The detachment is relieved every two months when practicable.

For a complete account of the island, see *Description and History of the British Outpost of Perim*, by Lieutenant J. S. King, Bombay Staff Corps[3] (1877).

OTHER BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN THE VICINITY OF ARABIA.—The only other British possessions in the vicinity of Arabia are the Massáh Islands, in the Bay of Tajurra, the island of Eibát, near Zaila, and the Kooriah Mooriah Islands, on the Mahra coast of Arabia. The two first were purchased by the British in 1840, but have never been occupied, and the last was ceded by the Imam of Muscat in 1854; they are only valuable for the guano deposits which are found upon them.

[1] Playfair. [2] Residency records.

[3] Published as a selection from the records of the Government of Bombay. No. xlix. New Series.

PART VI.—MISCELLANEOUS.

LANGUAGES SPOKEN IN THE SETTLEMENT.—The position of Aden is such that it is inevitable there should be a variety of tongues spoken by the inhabitants, and it would tax the ability of the most celebrated polyglot to understand and converse in their own languages with the various members of the numerous races to be met with in a walk from Steamer Point to the Crater.[1]

The European languages that are spoken are English, French, Italian, German, Dutch, Turkish, and Greek.

The language of the place is Arabic, but other Asiatic tongues and dialects are also in use—Hindustani, Guzerati, Mahrati, Scindi, Persian, Malay, etc.

Of African languages the Somali is most common, but Swahili, Amharic, and other dialects are also spoken to a considerable extent.

The language of the Resident's Court is English, that is to say, the whole of the proceedings in all cases, civil and criminal, are taken down in that language; processes however are generally printed in Arabic; and in the disposal of cases Hindustani, Arabic, and Somali are in daily use in about equal proportions.

FOREIGN CONSULS.—The following countries have at present representatives at Aden:—

Germany, ...	Consul.
Netherlands, ...	Consul.
Norway and Sweden, . .	Consul.
Italy, ...	Vice-Consul.
Austro-Hungary, . . .	Vice-Consul.
France, ...	Vice-Consular Agent.

By far the most business is done in the French Vice-Chancellerie, and it is surprising that country is not represented by a full Consul.

ZIARAHS.—The following account of the various 'Ziarahs' or visitations held at Aden may prove interesting.

As previously mentioned, one of the principal amusements of all classes in Aden is the occasion of a 'Ziarah' or visitation.

There are fourteen 'Ziarahs' altogether; of these, thirteen take place in the Crater and one at Steamer Point. Some of the saints in whose honour they are held have had 'masjids' erected to their memory; in other cases tombs only have been built.

[1] The order both here and hereafter in which a language is placed denotes also the position it holds in regard to frequency of usage.

The following account of the origin of each of these 'Ziarahs' has been collected from different sources :—

1. [1] Shaikh Jauhir Abdalla was a released slave, who carried on the business of a cloth merchant with such honesty and uprightness that no one was ever known to lose by dealing with him. He died in the year 626[2] of the Hejira, and a Ziarah has been held annually ever since on the 12th Rabi-al-Awal. He erected a masjid which was rebuilt by the Mehmon inhabitants of Aden in A.D. 1863.

2. [3] Shaikh Abdallah bin Ahmed was educated in Al-Hijjah, near Sanaa'; he was Kazi of Aden for three years prior to his death, which took place in A.H. 703,[4] when Mahomed Umar was governor. A masjid was erected to his memory by Shaikh Said-al-Zobaidi in 1856. The Ziarah has been held annually since his death on each 13th Rabi-al-Akhir.

3. [5] Shaikh and Sayyid Abobekr-bin-Abdalla-al-Aidrus-ba-Alawi was a devout, virtuous, and wise person, who lived in the reign of Abdul Wahab, and died in A.H. 914.[6] He erected a masjid which bears his name. It was rebuilt at the cost of upwards of a lakh of rupees in A.D. 1859 by a Mehmon named Ismail Habib of Bombay. The Ziarah is held on the 15th Rabi-al-Akhir.

4. [7] Shaikh Hussain bin Sidik-al-Ahdal was a wise and eloquent man, whose knowledge of religion and divinity was great. He died about 915 A.H.[8] A masjid was erected on the site of his tomb by A'li Abdalla in 1847. It was recently repaired by Hassan A'li Rajab A'li. Ziarah held on 16th Rabi-al-Akhir.

5. [9] Shaikh Ahmed Hussain-al-Mahdali, son of the last mentioned, in whose footsteps he walked. He died in A.H. 932.[10] A masjid was erected in his memory by Mahomed Yehia-al-Jebeli in 1860. Ziarah held 17th Rabi-al-Akhir.

6. [11] Shaikh Alawi bin Mahomed Aidrus was a learned and devout person, who died between A.H. 1000 and 1100.[12] He built a masjid. Ziarah held 11th Rabi-al-Akhir.

7. [13] Shaikh Abdul Latif-al-Iraki was a learned and devout man, who lived about the same time as the last mentioned. He has no masjid. Ziarah held 15th Rajab.

8. [14] Shaikh Ali bin Mahomed-al-Iraki was a religious and wealthy man, who died at the age of eighty-eight in A.H. 685.[15] He gave

[1] Ba Makrama's Tarikh Thagar, Aden. [2] A.D. 1228. [3] Ba Makrama.
[4] A.D. 1303. [5] From an inscription on his tomb. [6] A.D. 1508.
[7] Local traditions. [8] A.D. 1509. [9] Local tradition. [10] A.D. 1526.
[11] Local tradition. [12] A.D. 1591 or 1688. [13] Local tradition.
[14] Ba Makrama. [15] A.D. 1286.

annually $40,000 in charity. No masjid has been erected to his memory. Ziarah held 13th Shaaban.

9. [1] Shaikh Ahmed bin A'li was a learned Kazi of Aden, who died about A.H. 563.[2] A Ziarah is held once annually at his tomb at Steamer Point, near the Saluting Bunder, on the 15th Rajab.

10. [3] Shaikh al Hakam, bin Abban, bin Othman, bin Affan, the grandson of the third Caliph after Mohamed, was a devout and learned Kazi of Aden, who lived about A.H. 154.[4] He used nightly to pray by the seashore and exclaim, 'I with the fish and beasts Thee do worship.' His father Abban built the masjid which bears his name, and it was repaired recently by Ismail Habîb, a Bombay Mehmon. Ziarah held 15th Shaaban.

11. [5] Shaikh Ahmed bin Alwan lived about A.H. 647.[6] He is said to have worked miracles both when living and after death. His tomb is at Jafâria, near Taizz, where a Ziarah is also held on the 10th Rabi-al-Awal. A masjid was built to his memory in 1847 in Aden by Mahomed Hassan-al-Misri. Ziarah held 12th Shaaban in Aden, since the last twenty years only.

12. [7] Shaikh abu Suliman, A'bd-er-Rahmon was a devout and learned man who died in A.H. 205.[8] No masjid has been erected to his memory. A Ziarah has been held in his honour for the past ten years on the 11th Rajab.

13. [9] Shaikh Salim Mahomed al Iraki was a wise, religious, and virtuous man, whose advice was sought by all; even those living at some distance used to visit him. He died about A.H. 635.[10] A masjid was built to his memory in 1871 by Mahomed Kuvar. A Ziarah has been held in his honour for the past five years on the 13th Rajab.

14. [11] Shaikh al Harâdee was a religious man who lived in Mokha, whence his Ziarah has been transferred to Aden by the late residents of that abandoned sea-port. The date of his death is not known; his Ziarah has been held for the past fifteen years on 12th Rajab.

These Ziarahs have, of course, ostensibly a religious object, but the ceremonies observed are very simple; the tomb of the saint is visited and some flowers are cast on it, a short prayer is said, and the visitor takes his departure. During the Ziarah of Sayyid Abobekr bin Abdalla-al-Aidrus (No. 3), which is much the largest and most important, the masjid is illuminated at night, and many pious men and women collect there and sing hymns from 10 P.M. to 3 A.M. Hundreds of people, principally women from the sur-

[1] Ba Makrama. [2] A.D. 1167. [3] Ba Makrama. [4] A.D. 770.
[5] Dewan bin Alwan. [6] A.D. 1249. [7] Bin Khalkan. [8] A.D. 820.
[9] Bin Khalkan. [10] A.D. 1236. [11] Local tradition.

rounding districts, visit Aden on the occasion of a Ziarah, especially that last mentioned. As is usual in Arabia on festive occasions, every one puts on gay and clean apparel, even down to the smallest children. A sort of fair is held near the saint's masjid or tomb, with numerous booths, where coffee, sweetmeats, toys, etc., are sold. There are also swings of various kinds, but the chief amusement is the dancing, the several descriptions of which have been described under the head of 'Amusements.' Every race and tribe has its own dancers and circle of spectators. Seedees, Arabs of Aden, Arabs of Radaa,[1] Somalis of the Habr Awal, Habr Tuljaila, and Habr Gerhajis tribes, enjoy themselves in separate bands, and sometimes little squabbles arise, but very seldom, as no one is allowed to wear arms, and heavy sticks are forbidden to be carried. The fair is kept up till a late hour, but the women and children, who attend in great numbers in the day-time, go home soon after 10 P.M.

The more respectable class of the community confine themselves to a visit to the tomb or masjid.

The minaret standing near the new Court and Treasury building is the sole surviving relic of a large masjid that has passed into ruin within the memory of some of the older inhabitants. It is described as having been of considerable size, and to have been built at great cost by a woman of the Bani-Ghassan, who held sway in Yemen between A.H. 800 and 1000.[2]

Abul Feda states that there was also a large jami' masjid built some time before A.H. 100[3] by Umar bin Abdul Aziz, a just and upright ruler, the 8th of the caliphs of the Bani Umaya. It was built on the seashore, in the Crater, where the barracks now stand, and was repaired and enlarged by Abu Abdalla al Husain ba Salâma, who was by origin a Nubian slave in the house of the Bani Ziad, who then governed Yemen. This man rose to the dignity of Vizier, and after the fall of the Bani Ziad he conquered the rebellious tribes, and himself became ruler of Yemen. Ba Makrama gives A.H. 402[4] as the date of his death.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.[5]—The following natural calamities have visited the Settlement and surrounding districts since British occupation :—

(*a.*) Cholera. (*c.*) Dengue. (*e.*) Famine.
(*b.*) Small-pox. (*d.*) Murrain.

(*a.*) *Cholera.*—In 1846 the disease broke out in Aden; about 386 persons were carried off, of whom 20 were Europeans; the

[1] Town in Yemen. [2] A.D. 1397 and 1597. [3] A.D. 718.
[4] A.D. 1011. [5] Extracts from Aden Residency records.

daily average of deaths was 15. The epidemic spread to some extent among the troops and camp followers, and the shipping in harbour was affected. The disease appeared at Makalla, and to the eastward, at Lahej, Mokha, Jiddah, and nearly all the Red Sea ports. It broke out in Aden after a heavy fall of rain, on the same day as it did at Mokha under similar circumstances. The direction of travel was north-north-west. The attack lasted 33 days in Aden, but elsewhere it raged for a longer period.

In 1849 cholera raged at Mecca and Jiddah, and in the surrounding districts. Upwards of 5000 deaths occurred in Mecca alone, but Aden was not touched.

1858.—In this year cholera broke out at Aden, when 15 Europeans and 560 natives fell victims to the scourge, which raged most fatally in the interior and on the African coast. The disease reappeared in 1859, carrying off in Aden 1 European and 83 natives.

From May to August 1865 cholera raged in Aden without intermission. 1 European and 53 natives died. The disease passed into the interior through South Arabia, up to Muscat and the Persian Gulf, causing great havoc. The epidemic was probably intensified by the congregation of pilgrims at Mecca. On this occasion the disease was first heard of at Hodaida, then Jiddah and Mecca, thence it passed down the Red Sea to Aden along the South Arabian coast. From Jiddah it spread to Egypt, and down the western littoral of the Red Sea to Massowa, thence inland to Abyssinia and the Galla country.

1867-68.—There was a slight epidemic in Aden, when 57 persons were carried off.

(*b.*) *Small-pox.*—In 1844 a most virulent type of this disease broke out in the town; it raged at Sanaa' and the surrounding villages, carrying off 250 persons daily.

1848.—In this year very bad small-pox broke out at Lahej and the neighbouring districts, but few casualties occurred in Aden. The same year Berbera and Zaila were fatally afflicted, upwards of 500 persons being carried off in the former place alone. The attack lasted six weeks.

1849.—The disease continued to rage on the Somali coast, but disappeared from the vicinity of Aden.

1865-66.—A considerable number of cases occurred in these years, and the disease prevailed in the interior.

1869-70.—A virulent type broke out in Aden this year, chiefly among the Somalis, 103 out of 273 persons afflicted dying.

1875-76.—Small-pox was imported by pilgrims from Mecca, and

lasted in a desultory way for about a month, but the deaths were few in number.

The disease is always more or less present in Aden, and is yearly imported by pilgrims, but it will be seen from the above that the epidemic has seldom proved serious in the Settlement, although raging in the surrounding districts.

(*c.*) *Dengue.*—1872-73.—In this year a severe epidemic of dengue broke out, and hardly any person escaped being attacked, but no casualties occurred. The disease was, it is believed, imported from Zanzibar, and was transmitted to India through a troopship, and it raged in the Bombay Presidency with great violence.

(*d.*) *Murrain.*—1863-64.—Cattle-disease was present in the neighbourhood in this year; it proved most deadly; very few animals were spared, and the people were reduced to sore distress. Cattle were imported freely, and grain became scarce and dear.

1864-65.—The disease continued, and the imported cattle also died. Famine became imminent.

1873-4.—Cattle-disease was present in the interior, and many animals in Aden died.

(*e.*) *Famine*, 1866.—Owing probably to the murrain amongst the cattle, and the presence of small-pox and cholera in the interior, the people of the neighbourhood suffered great hardships from famine. The scarcity was felt in Aden, where ten days' provisions only remained, when the opportune arrival of a steamer from Bombay with grain, and shortly afterwards of two sailing vessels, similarly laden, relieved the apprehensions of disaster. Owing to the excellent arrangements made by the Government of Bombay, and the munificent charity of Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy, Bart., the crisis was safely passed through.

WRECKS AND CASUALTIES.—Apart from the importance of Aden as a strategical point for a naval and military station, it possesses also the advantage of enabling assistance to be rendered in cases of accident and shipwreck.

Much endeavour has been made, and it is believed successfully, to impress on the inhabitants of the neighbouring coasts of Arabia and Africa that (in case of any vessel being cast away on their coasts) it is far more to their interest to save life and property than to slay and plunder.

In the following instances the proximity of this Settlement, and the means provided by the Bombay Government (which is always forward in matters of this nature), have enabled assistance to be effectually rendered towards saving life and property.

WRECKS and CASUALTIES that have taken place in the NEIGHBOURHOOD of ADEN since the opening of the SUEZ CANAL.

(*N.B.* Casualties that occurred in Aden Harbour are not included in the List.)

YEAR.	MONTH.	NAME OF VESSEL.	NATIONALITY.	WHERE CASUALTY OCCURRED.	REMARKS.
1870.	June,	S.S. 'John Dryden,' .	British, .	Ras Hafoon, African coast, 100 miles south of Guardafui.	From Bombay to Liverpool. Cargo, cotton. Crew picked up by French S.S. 'Mozambique,' and brought to Aden. Bombay Government S.S. 'Sind,' proceeded to wreck, and 1565 bales of cotton and 4 cases of ginger were saved. Crew were well treated by Mijjertayn Somalis.
,,	July,	S. 'Iscander Shah,' .	,,	Perim, ...	Jiddah to Bombay. Cargo, salt and 150 pilgrims. Vessel abandoned, but pulled off and brought to Aden by Government S.S. 'Sind.'
,,	,,	S. 'Morning Star,' .	,,	Alloola, near Guardafui, . .	Cardiff to Aden. Cargo, coal. One man was killed by the Somalis, and the Bombay Government S.S. 'Sind' was sent to obtain reparation. The coast was subsequently blockaded by H.M. S. 'Lynx,' and everything was done by the Somalis that was possible to render satisfaction. The ship was got off.
,,	Sept.,	S. 'Harvester,' . .	American, .	Arabian coast, 127 miles east of Aden.	In ballast. The vessel, after going on shore, was accidentally burnt, but the Aulaki Sultan did his best to protect property. Unfortunately no vessel was available at Aden to send to the seat of disaster.
,,	Nov.,	S. 'Beacon Light,' .	British, . .	Lat., 35° 31′ south; Long., 18° 31′ west.	From Greenock to Rangoon. Burnt at sea. Officers and men rescued and brought to Aden by S. 'Northfleet.'
1871.	July,	S.S. 'Diamond,' . / S.S. 'Peiho,' . .	,, / French, .	Ras Amran, close to Aden, .	Collision. 'Peiho' badly damaged. Both vessels came into harbour to repair damages.
,,	Aug.,	S.S. 'Vixen,' . .	British, . .	90 miles east of Aden, . .	Calcutta to Liverpool. Ran short of coal. The doctor and three men landed, and found their way to Aden, experiencing kind treatment from the Fadhli Arabs.
1872.	June,	S.S. 'Bengal,' . .	,,	3 miles east of Aden, . .	S.S. 'Ada' was sent from Aden, and succeeded in towing her off.
,,	,,	S.S. 'Isa,' . . .		Island of Socotra, . . .	Cargo, rice. Beached because of a leak. Crew saved, and taken care of until arrival of H.M. S. 'Briton,' which conveyed them to Aden.

WRECKS AND CASUALTIES—*continued.*

YEAR.	MONTH.	NAME OF VESSEL.	NATIONALITY.	WHERE CASUALTY OCCURRED.	REMARKS.
1872.	July,	S.S. 'Parnassus,' .	British, .	Cape Guardafui, . . .	From China to London, with tea. Crew picked up by S.S. 'Delhi,' and brought to Aden. Bombay Government S.S. 'Kwangtung' sent to assist in saving property, but little rescued. Ship total wreck.
,,	Dec.,	S.S. 'Cerdic,' . .	,,	Ras Arah, 30 miles east of Perim.	Bombay to Liverpool. The Bombay Government S.S. 'Kwangtung' was despatched from Aden and pulled her off. No damage.
1873.	March,	S.S. 'Wosung,' . .	,,	Red Sea, island of Kitama, .	For England. Cargo valued at £350,000. Total wreck. Bombay Government S.S. 'Kwangtung' despatched from Aden. Saved much cargo.
,,	July,	S.S. 'Singapore,' .	,,	Cape Guardafui, . . .	From Shanghai to London. Total wreck; sixteen lives lost. Survivors well treated by Somalis for thirty-nine days. I.G.S.S. 'Dalhousie' despatched to scene of wreck to bring away survivors.
,,	,,	S.S. 'Azalea, . .	,,	Perim, ...	For England, with general cargo. Total wreck. Much cargo saved by I.G.S.V. 'Dalhousie,' sent from Aden to render assistance.
,,	Aug.,	S.S. 'Quangchow,' .	,,	Near Bunder Moraya, not far from Cape Guardafui.	Coal from London. Total wreck. Abandoned by nearly all the crew; those that remained by the vessel were brought away by I.G.S.V. 'Dalhousie,' with survivors of the 'Singapore.'
,,	Dec.,	S.S. 'Stephenson,' .	,,	Ras Arrah, 30 miles east of Perim.	Cargo, coal for Aden. Got off without assistance.
1874.	July,	S.S. 'Tenasseerim,'	,,	Ras Hafoon, on African coast, near Cape Guardafui.	Cargo, hides from Rangoon. Total wreck. I.G.S.V. 'Kwangtung' sent from Aden to assist. Found passengers and crew well taken care of by Somalis. No cargo saved.
,,	,,	S.S. 'Royal Family,' .	,,	Ras Sherarif, African coast, near Cape Guardafui.	Cargo, coal for Aden. Total wreck. All hands reached Aden safely.
1875.	Feb.,	S.S. 'Hong Kong,' .	,,	Abdool Koree Islands, near Socotra.	Colombo to Liverpool. Total wreck. One lady, five children, and six of the crew drowned; remainder reached Aden. The I.G.S.V. 'Kwangtung' went in search of boats. Some of crew landed on Arabian coast, and were well treated by the Fadhli Arabs.
,,	March,	S.S. 'Thomas Bayne,'	,, (Canada).	Rakhoda, on Somali coast, a little east of Aden.	With ballast from Aden. The I.G.S.V. 'Kwangtung' was sent to her assistance, but she became a total wreck.
1876.	June,	S.S. 'Galatea,' . .	British, . .	10 miles east of Aden, . .	With seeds from Bombay. Took fire off the port, and was towed in by the I.G.S.V. 'Dalhousie.' Scuttled, but subsequently raised and sent home.

TELEGRAPH.—*Ocean Line.*—In 1858 Government warmly supported and subsidised a company to lay cables along the Red Sea and the southern shores of Arabia, between Suez, Aden, and Karachi. The wires used for sheathing were extremely slight, and were quite unprotected from corrosion. No allowance was made for slack, and sufficient care was not exercised in the selection of the route along the Red Sea; consequently within a few weeks of the laying of each section, the cable gave way and became defective, and the line, after costing £800,000, was never available throughout.[1]

In 1869 the British Indian Submarine Telegraph Company was formed, and on the 9th November the 'Great Eastern,' chartered by the Telegraph and Maintenance Company, left Portland with the deep-sea cable on board, accompanied by the 'Chiltern,' 'Hibernia,' and 'Hawk.' The Bombay shore end was laid successfully on the 7th February 1870, and on the 14th February the 'Great Eastern' spliced the shore end and sailed for Aden, laying the cable as she went along. She arrived off Aden on the 26th February, and on the 27th the cable was cut and buoyed eight miles from land. Unfortunately, owing to bad weather, it parted from the buoys during the night, but the end was picked up by the 'Chiltern' (which accompanied the 'Great Eastern' as tender) on the 28th February. The shore end was successfully landed on the 1st March, and the splice with the main line completed on the 2d. The land line was then laid between the shore end of the cable in Telegraph Bay, and the Company's offices in 'Prince of Wales Crescent.' On the same day the shore end of the Suez section was landed. The 'Hibernia' arrived on the 3d of March. A comical incident occurred during the operation of laying the remainder of the shore end of the Red Sea cable. In paying out from the 'Chiltern,' a foul flake turned up, and before the ship could be stopped, it had dragged the end of the cable out of the cable-house at Aden into the sea, much to the astonishment of the electrician in charge at the hut; the ship was three-quarters of a mile from the shore when this happened, and the end was found buried in the sand three feet deep and sixty feet distant from the place where it had been resting. This end was subsequently spliced and again connected with the cable-house. On the 5th March the certificate that the cable was electrically perfect and properly laid between Bombay and Aden was given by Mr. Forde, the engineer of the British Indian Submarine Telegraph Company, into whose hands this section then passed. The next

[1] The *Electric Telegraph*, by Dr. Lardner, p. 98.

day the 'Great Eastern' commenced the laying of the Red Sea section, passing through the large straits near Perim. Off Jebel Tir the operations were transferred to the 'Hibernia,' the 'Great Eastern' returning to Aden. On the 13th March the paying out of the cable was taken up by the 'Chiltern.' The 'William Cory' laid the shore end of the Suez line, and the splice was effected about 110 miles from the latter place on the 22d March 1870.[1]

The contract price for laying this cable was £1,000,000, of which £460,000 were taken in paid-up shares of the British Indian Company. It is not necessary here to refer to the construction of the cable on the European side. The line was opened for through traffic between England and India on the 26th March 1870.

The length of the cable laid from Aden to Bombay is 1818 miles, and from Aden to Suez 1465 miles.

The cable has been broken twice in the Gulf of Suez, and once near Perim Island, since its construction. The Bombay section has never been interrupted.

The Company, which since 1872 has been called the 'Eastern Telegraph Company,' duplicated both sections of the cable in 1876. Aden is a repeating station, where all messages from both east and west are read off and passed on. The duplex system, working both ways at the same time, has been established. The instrument used is the 'Recorder,' invented by Sir W. Thomson, and introduced in 1872.

The office at Aden is in 'Prince of Wales Crescent,' and the Company are erecting new quarters for their staff and cable-house, etc., on Ras Boradlee, whither the office also will be removed.

The Eastern Telegraph Company have a staff in Aden consisting of a superintendent assisted by an electrician, and seldom less than sixteen clerks and signallers.

The present tariffs to the principal parts of the world is given below :—

	s.	*d.*	
Great Britain (London), . .	3	9	per word.
Great Britain (Provincial) .	3	10	,,
France, ...	3	7	,,
India west of Chittagong, .	2	11	,,
India east of Chittagong, .	3	2	,,
Burmah, ...	3	4	,,
Singapore, ...	5	9	,,
China, ...	7	10	,,

[1] Abridged from *Ocean Telegraph to India*, by J. C. Parkinson.

Land Line.—There is also a double local line which runs from Steamer Point to the Crater; one wire connects the Residency with the Resident's office, and the other is used by the public for the transmission of messages between Steamer Point and the Crater. There is a third line which connects Messrs. Luke, Thomas, and Co.'s premises at Steamer Point with their coal-ground and condensing apparatus at Hedjuff.[1]

The whole line is the property of Messrs. Luke, Thomas, and Co., Government paying an annual rent for the use of the first-mentioned wire, and the public being charged 9 annas for a 16-word message sent by the second wire.

The line is licensed under Act VIII. of 1860 of the Government of India.

EXTRACT FROM AN ARABIC WORK RELATING TO ADEN.[2]—'The following notes giving a glimpse at the state of Aden six centuries ago are taken from the Itinerary of Ibn El Mojawir called the *Tarikh-el-Mostabsir*, and have been selected, not as being by any means the most interesting portion of the book, but as relating to a part of Arabia to which more than usual interest attaches as being a British possession. The author does not give a connected account of current events at Aden, but he offers some information respecting the internal condition of the place and the fiscal arrangements of the Government, which is not altogether without interest. Ibn El Mojawir was not a native of Aden, but kept a journal, and noted down what he saw and heard in the towns and countries he visited; he is quoted by El Khuzraji, the historian of Yemen, as an authority for the period at which he wrote. The text of the manuscript is very corrupt and full of *lacunæ*, which may account for some of the deficiencies of translation. S. B. MILES, *Lieut.-Col.*,

H. B. M.'s Poltl. Agent and Consul, Muscat.'

On the state of Aden in former times.—From the Red Sea to Aden and beyond Jebel Sokotera was one united expanse of land; there was no sea in it and no gulf. Then came Dhul Karnein in his tour of conquest and arrived at that place, and Abu Jafar having opened the gulf towards the ocean the sea flowed into it until it stopped at Bab-el-Mandeb, and Aden remained in the sea which surrounded it. After that nothing was visible from Aden except

[1] See Map.

[2] The method of orthography in Arabic names and words used by Lieut.-Col. Miles has not been altered.

the summits of mountains like islands, and we have proofs of that. Firstly, it is known that the marks which the sea and the waves have left remain visible on the summits of Jebel el Kar and on the mountain on which is the fort of Ta'kar and on Jebel Akhdar. And the second proof is that Shedâd bin 'Ad did not build Irem Dhât 'Imâd except between Lahej and the gulf on one side, and Mawya, which is on the road to Mafalis, on the other, and that side which is toward Jebel Darreena is desert. He did not build it except in the most odoriferous lands and breezes and airs in a delicious country far from the sea. At the present time the sea has returned to the neighbourhood of Irem Dhât 'Imâd and swallowed up part of it, and the sea would not be there had it not been for the opening made by Dhul Karnein, by which it expanded itself from the island of Sokotera and flowed until it stopped at the extremity of El Mandeb. The third proof is that the sea, which is between Sareen and its limit, is called Mutarid El Kheil and Murabit El Kheil, and it was there that the Arabs originally used to tether their horses in that country. It is certain also they used to exercise their horses there when it was dry land. When Dhul Karnein opened Bab-el-Mandeb all the country was flooded, and no signs of it were left except some islands that were formed in the sea, and it is called by its original name Mutarid El Kheil. From what is stated by the Ameer Abu Tainee Jciâsh bin Nejab in his book *El Mufeid fî Akhbar Zebîd El Awal* (for there are two Mufeids, the first whose author is the Ameer Jciâsh, and the second, composed by Fakhr-ul-deen Abu Ali Amara bin Mahomed bin Amara), it appears that the sea had greatly diminished when the Abyssinians conquered the Arabian Peninsula. They took possession of Sanaa at the border of the country of the 'Awahil, and their dynasty remained there both in pre-Islamite and Mahomedan times until Ali bin Mehdi destroyed them in the year 554 A.H., when their power disappeared and their rule declined with extreme rapidity. To return to the account of Dhul Karnein. The sea remained in that state until Dhul Karnein opened Bab-el-Mandeb, and the sea flowed into it and reached the end of Kulzum, when it spread out and extended until it laid bare the land of Aden. The account that Abu Abdulla Mahomed ibn Abdulla Al Keysani gives in his commentary is that when Shedad bin Ad set out from Yemen to visit the dependencies of Hadhramaut, and had passed the borders of Lahej, he saw Jebel Izz and conjectured from its size that it was very distant; he therefore sent his retainers to explore this mountain and see what was below it. When they had examined the place, they returned and

said it was a valley in which were trees and huge serpents, and that it overlooked the salt sea. When he heard this account Shedad descended to Lahej and ordered his people to dig wells, and from these the people of Aden still continue to draw water. He also ordered they should excavate for him an entrance in the side of the valley.

Excavation of the entrance and aqueduct.—The excavation of the gate and aqueduct was performed by two men, and the wise men of Hind say they were Efreets of the Jinn. One of them commenced excavating the rock, while the other began to dig the trench at Ras Socotra, in the dependency of Lahej, and the two did not cease from their exertions in excavating and tunnelling until but little was left of the work. Then said the excavator—'If it be the will of God the Almighty, to-morrow I shall be free and have finished my work.' And the digger of the trench said—'And I to-morrow will cause the water to enter Aden whether it please God or no!' Then it came to pass that the aqueduct became broken in various places, and the spring of water was checked at its source, and what had been built up fell down, and no part of it was completed, nor was any benefit derivable from it. The trench had been brought to the foot of Jebel Hadeed, when it was brought to nought . . . But when the morning of the morrow came to the excavator the tunnel was finished, and the gate was opened, and the work was accomplished as he desired. It is said he was engaged in the excavation for a period of seventy years until it was completed. After a long space of time Shedad bin Ad used to throw into that place those who deserved imprisonment, and it remained a prison until the end of the dynasty that was at that time over Egypt, and after the decline of that dynasty the place became ruined.

'*Cities used as prisons.*—Siraf was the prison of Sultan Mahmoud bin Mohammed bin Sam, and Aden was a prison of the Pharaohs, but it ceased to be a prison under the Fatimites. The Indians say Aden was the prison of Das Sir, the name of a Jinn with ten heads, one of which was that of the deer Dilaeser, and he used to dwell on Jebel Mundhir, and to disport himself on the sands of Hokat Bay, and after that Hokat was inhabited by Indians, and no one was expelled therefrom except Soliman, son of Daood, on whom be peace, when he arrived at the land of Yemen to visit Bilkees, and this was by reason of the people before described being Efreets. Aden was so called, because he who founded it called it after his son Aden. Some say, however, that it derived the name of Aden from the tribe of Ad. It is also said that the first man who was

imprisoned in it was named Aden, and it was called after him. And Ibu Mojawir says it derived the name of Aden from Ma'aden, because it was formerly an iron mine, and it was called by the Persians Akhirsikeen, and by the Indians Siran. The merchants call it Tâkal Saida, and it is also known as 'Pharaoh's prison,' 'the abode of Jinns,' and 'the shore of the sea.' By the Indians it is named Hatâm, and by gentle folks it is considered a filthy place, because whatever people throw out there the wind drives back upon them; and it is styled by some the Custom House of Yemen. The house called by the common people *the house of good fortune* is the house built by Seif-ul-Islam Taghtagin opposite the Custom House, and they call *the long house* the house built by Ibn Halem facing the Custom House. The house named Mundhir is the house built by Malik El Maiz Ismail bin Taghtagin upon Jebel Hokat, and it is called by merchants Seera and Heera. Jebel Seera is a lofty rock in the sea confronting Aden and Jebel Mundhir, of which it is said to be a portion. Mohammed bin Abdulla El Keysani says in his commentary that on the day of Judgment fire will be emitted from the Seera of Aden and drive the people to hell, and the proof of that is, that in the heart of the rock is a well named Amber, and the sages of Hind call it Bir Yeran, and smoke issues from it perpetually. It is now called Bir Heramasat, and no one is able to look at it on account of its terribleness and its gloom and vapour. Round about the well are found broken stones and snakes sleeping and animals standing, and the Indians say that Hunweet, the before-mentioned Efreet, dug this well, which indeed is not a well, but a subterranean passage excavated under the sea to the city of Oojein Bikrami, which is the capital of the King of Malwa in India. It was stated to me by Mubarak El Sharoni Moula, father of Mohammed bin Mesood, saying the cause of the excavation of the well Veran was Hadather, and this Efreet stole the couch of the wife of Ram Hyder from the province of Oudh and flew with her until he rested on the summit of Jebel Seera. He then said to her:—I desire to change your form from that of a human being to that of a Jinn, and they began to wrangle, and Hunweet, who was an Efreet in the form of an ape, hearing them quarrel, dug this passage from the city of Oojein Bikrami under the sea until it terminated in the centre of Jebel Seera, and he completed it all in one night. Issuing from the passage he found her (Hyder's wife) sleeping under a thorn tree on the top of the hill, so he took her on his back and descended with her into

the passage, and ceased not to proceed with her until he arrived at Oojein Bikrami about daybreak, when he delivered her to her husband, Ram Hyder, who became blessed with two male children by her, one of whom was named Luth and the other Kus, and hers is a long story and requires a lengthy narration, but the passage exists to this day. To return to the former subject. When ships are retarded by the monsoon in their endeavours to reach the mouth of Aden harbour, they bring to Jebel Seera seven oxen about the time of sunset, and leave them in some place until the middle of the night. Towards the end of the night they send back six to Aden leaving but one ox there, which they sacrifice in the morning, and they call that sacrifice 'the sacrifice of the hill.' When they have done this the ships are able to approach and arrive one after the other. This custom was instituted in ancient times during the sway of the Beni Zuree and other Arab dynasties, but the practice has ceased in our time.

Note.—When a ship on a voyage weathers Sokotera or Jebel Kudmul, they call that weathering 'El Foulah,' and they take a dish and put in it a sail and rudder and the other appurtenances of a ship, and place therein some morsels of cocoa-nut, salt, and pomegranate, and float it on the sea in the raging waves, and then say that it draws near and arrives in safety to the foot of the hill.

The Building of Aden.—With the fall of the Empire of the Pharaohs, Aden became ruined and deserted, and the peninsula was inhabited only by fishermen who pursued their occupation there. These remained a long time provided by God's bounty, until the men of Kamar came in their ships in great numbers and took possession of the peninsula after they had expelled the fishermen by force, and they dwelt on the summits of Jebel Ahmar and Kokat and Jebel Munzhir which overlook the farms, and their signs and works are extant to this day in stone and mortar filling the valleys and hills. The poet says—

As for me, I weep copiously; for their houses have become empty.
And the leader of their camels has departed.
The anguish of separation makes me mad.
I stand on their habitations raving about them and asking:—
O houses! have you news of them?
Return me an answer quickly.
It was answered me from their houses wailing and crying:—
Weep blood, O neglectful one!
The caravans have departed.
My slave girl is with them: in elegance and qualities perfect;
In face and form roselike and thornlike.

They used to start from El Kamar, reaching Aden in one voyage and in one season. Ibn El Mojawir says that that race of people has died out, and their dynasty become extinct and their career terminated, and no one is to be found in our time who knows the history of them or can relate their condition and actions. Ibn El Mojawir says—From Aden to Makdasho is one season (or journey), and from Makdasho to Kilwa another season's voyage, and from Kilwa to Kamar a third season; but that tribe used to perform the three seasons' journey in one season, for one ship actually performed the voyage from Kamar to Aden in this way in the year 626 A.H.; starting from El Kamar and bound for Kilwa it anchored at Aden. Their vessels had outriggers on account of the straitness of the seas and danger of the currents, and shallowness of the water there. When the tribe became enfeebled the Berbers overpowered them and expelled them thence, and possessed the land and inhabited the valley, the space now occupied by mat huts, and they were the first who erected mat huts in Aden. After them the place became ruined, and so remained until the men of Siraf invaded it, and mention has already been made of them before. And Sultan Shah bin Jemshid proceeded to Aden, and having disembarked established himself there, and the place became re-peopled thereby. It was his intention to have brought drinking water by aqueduct for the people from Zeila,[1] but the distance proved too great, so he built tanks to collect the rain water, and the clay used for building them was brought from the neighbourhood of Abien, or, as some say, from Zeila. When the population of Aden had much increased, several baths were erected, one bath being built near the Habs El Dam. In the year 622 A.H. a heavy torrent descended and swept clean the whole town. The Jama mosque was constructed near the bath of Motamid Razi-ul-Deen Ali bin Mahomed El Tukreeti, and this Prince built stables for his elephants in the year 625 A.H. And the population filled the space at the foot of Jabel Akhdar in its whole length and breadth, and when he perceived that he assumed the Sultanate.

Titles and names of the Kings of Ajam who ruled over the country of Aden.

1. Sultan Shah bin Jemshid bin Asaad ibn Kaisar.

2. Abu Sinan Siawash bin Asaad bin Kaisar Kaseem Amir El Momineen.

[1] Zaida, a hamlet about forty miles north of Aden, where there is a perennial stream.

3. Abu El Moozuffar Asaad bin Kaisar Burkan Amir El Momineen.

4. Abu Shajaa Namshad bin Asaad bin Kaisar Nasra Amir El Momineen.

5. Abu El Fatah Keikobad bin Mahomed bin Kaisar Moiz Amir El Momineen.

6. Abu Saeed Kaisar bin Rustam bin Kaisar Umdat Amir El Momineen.

7. Abu Samsan Ad bin Shedad bin Jemshed bin Asaad ibn Kaisar Yemeen Amir El Momineen.

8. Abu El Mulk Taj-ul-deen Jemshed bin Asaad bin Kaisar Zabir Amir El Momineen.

9. Abu El Wafa Kudar Shah bin Hezeraat Yemeen Amir El Momineen.

10. Abu El Burkat El Harith Hazaraat bin Jemshed bin Asaad Husain Amir El Momineen.

These were the Persian kings who ruled in Aden.

Building of the Walls of Aden.—It was related to me by Abdulla bin Mohammed bin Yehia that a ship from the west once anchored at Aden at night, and the captain having landed was walking around Aden, when he came to a lofty house in which were lighted candles and perfumes burning, so he knocked at the door and a slave descended and opened to him saying, Do you require aught? The captain replied, Yes; so the slave asked permission for him, and the master of the house said, Let him come, so he ascended, and they saluted each other being unacquainted, and they began to converse, and the captain said, I have arrived this night from the west, and I desire of the master's kindness that he will conceal for me some valuables. He said why? The captain replied, I am in fear of the Dai. Then the master of the house said, I consent; have no fear of oppressors, transport all you have to a certain house. So the captain descended, and the merchants began to land their property from the ship in boxes and transport them to the house, until they had lightened the ship of two-thirds of the cargo. When the morning came the captain found his host of the night before to be the Dai himself, and he said to himself, 'I sought shelter from the rain and sat down beneath the spout;' and he was troubled in mind, and his face became clouded. Then the Dai sent for him and said to him, I am your friend of last night, and I am the Dai, the governor of Aden at this time; be comforted and set your mind at ease; the customs duties on your ship are a present from me to thee with the house in which you have alighted, and these 1000

dinars are for your expenses while you remain in our city. God forbid I should take anything from you either in the way of present or of trade. The captain then said, Wherefore is all this done to me? The Dai said, On account of your entering upon me in my house at midnight. Then he gave orders that the wall should be extended from Hisn Akhdar to Jebel Hokat, but they constructed a very weak wall, and it fell down bodily and was destroyed by the unceasing action of the waves on it, and when it was ruined he built on it another wall of interlaced canes, and this remains to the present day. Abu Othman Omar bin Othman ibn Ali El Zangebili El Tukreeti built a wall running along the height of Munzhir to the end of Jebel El Izz, and erected on it the Hokat gate; and he built a second wall on Jebel Akhdar, the extent of which was from Hisn Akhdar to El Takhar on the ridge of the hill. He also constructed a wall on the shore from El Tabagha to Jebel Hokat, in which were six gates, viz., the Sabagha and Juma gates; the Sikka gate, which has two entrances or arches through which the torrent rushes when it rains at Aden; the Furza or customs gate for the merchandise to pass in and out; Bab Musharif or Musharij gate, which is continually open for the passage of people; and Bab Habak, that is always closed; there is also the gate to the interior that has been mentioned before. The walls were built of stone and mortar, and he also constructed the custom house, placing in it two gates. Ibn Zangibili besides constructed the old Kaisarea or covered bazaars, and the markets or shops, and houses of stone, and Aden returned to its former state (of prosperity); but when Seif El Islam entered Aden, Ibn Zanjibili devoted all his property for religious purposes at Mekka in the year 575 A.H. El Malik El Maiz Taghtageen ibn Eiyoob built a block of houses, the whole of which were shops at the gate, and he gave over the new Kaisarea to the druggists. Then Motamid Razi-ul-deen Mohammed bin Ali El Tukreeti erected buildings in the name of Malik El Mesaood Eusof bin Mohammed bin Ali Bekr, and the population increased in it; and they built houses and amassed property, and many Arabs from all parts came and settled there. Afterwards Motamid Mohammed bin Ali built a beautiful bath, and the people dug wells and erected mosques with pulpits, and its splendour returned, and it is certain that it arose after the port of Abien had become ruined. And the merchants removed from the city of Abien and dwelt at Kalhat and Magdisho, and the three cities grew up at that time, but God knows.

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Description of Aden.—The town is in a valley surrounded by the sea; its climate is so bad that it turns wine into vinegar in the space of ten days. The water is derived from wells, and is also brought in by an aqueduct two fursakhs long. The sweet water wells in Aden are—Bir Hulkum and El Sultaniya, Bir Ali bin Abi Burkat ibn El Katib, very old; Bir Ahmed bin El Museeb; Bir ibn Abi Gharat, very old, it is near the gate of Aden; Bir Mukaddum, also very old; three wells belonging to Daood bin Muzmoon, the Jew, and three wells belonging to Sheikh Omar bin Hossein, a well of Ali bin Hossein El Azruk; Bir Jaafir, very ancient and forty cubits deep; Bir Zafran known by its trough, and which is set apart for Moslems. I was informed by Abdulla bin Mohammed bin Yehia that the water of the Zafran well was carried to all the towns of Yemen, because, he said, Seif-ul-Dowla Ababak Soukar, a slave of Malik El Maiz Ismail bin Taghtageni, drank at the house of Motamid Mohammed bin Ali El Tukreeti some wine of very agreeable flavour, and he said to him—'Of what is this wine made?' Motamid replied, 'Of water from the Zafran well. If I steep Kadhy in this water and leave it in the sun, it becomes wine (Nebeed), and it requires neither honey nor anything else being put in.' From that time they were used to transport this water to Jend, Taiz, Sanaa, and Zebeed to make wine with it. The water certainly is now earthy, though they say it was originally as (sweet) as the Euphrates, but that it has now become somewhat salt on account of the evil deeds of the people. I was informed by Mohammed bin Zankal bin Hassan El Kirmani that an inhabitant of Aden asserted he had been told by Abdulla bin Mohammed Ishaaki El Dai that there were 180 sweet water wells in Aden, and that the water never decreased, but God knows.

Account of the arrival of ships.—When a ship arrives near Aden, and the watchmen on the hill perceive it, they shout with a loud voice, 'Heerya.' These watchmen are stationed at the end of Jebel Akhdar, upon which is built the fort El Akhdar originally called Seerseeat. The watchman is unable to distinguish clearly except at the rising and setting of the sun, because at those times the rays of the sun glance on the surface of the water and distant objects appear. He fixes a stick upright before him, and when he fancies he sees anything on the sea he marks it off on the stick, and if it is a bird or other such thing it moves to the right or left, or rises up or descends, and then he knows it is not a ship; but if the object remain steadfast in a line with the notch on the stick, he knows for

certain that it is a ship, and he signals to his companion, who shouts 'Heerya,' and signals to the next watchman, who hails the hulk, 'O slave in the ship.' Then the hulk sends news of the arrival to the governor of the town, and the messenger after leaving the presence of the governor informs the officers at the custom house, and after doing this he shouts with a loud voice from the top of the hill, 'Heerya, Heerya, Heerya.' And when the inhabitants hear the shouts they ascend the hills and mount the roofs of their houses and gaze to the right and left. If the watchman's signal turn out correct, they give him for each ship one Deenar Mulki and the same amount from the customs; but if he gave a false notice, he gets ten stripes. When the ship draws near, the bearers of good tidings go in boats to meet the ships, and as they approach, they salute the Nakhoda and ask him whence he has come, and the Nakhoda asks them about the country and who the governor is, and the state of the market; and every one in the ship who has relatives or friends in the country asks concerning them, and receives good news or condolences as the case may be. Then they place something before him and write the name of the Nakhoda and the names of the merchants. The clerk also notes down everything in the ship of the goods and cloths, and gives them the paper, and the bearers of good news get into their boat to return to their shore. All of them then go in a body to the Governor and give him the clerk's manifest, in which are written the names of the merchants, etc., and they give an account of the ship, whence it has come, and what merchandise it has brought. When they leave the Governor they go about the town acquainting those whose friends have arrived of their near meeting, and they receive the reward of good news from each. When the vessel arrives in harbour and anchors, the Naib of the Sultan comes on board, and the examiner also, and he searches man after man, examining even their turbans, hair, sleeves, trousers, and under their armpits; and in the same way a matron searches the women. When the merchants land the next day, they bring their personal baggage, and after three days they land their cloth and merchandise at the Custom House, where they open every package and count piece by piece; and if the merchandise is saleable by weight, they weigh it in a steel-yard, and the Sheik assesses all the articles very heavily indeed until nothing is left; the merchants swearing by God Almighty that they have acted straightforwardly before the Sheiks. Ibn Mojawir says at such times despondency comes over the merchant, and grief kills

him, and he remains in the valley of death at having been treated in such a way as to lose both blessedness and salvation.

Account of Customs duties.—Truly the duties were introduced in the days of the Beni Zurreea, and they say that the first who invented them was a certain Jew named Khalaj El Mahawendi, whose rules were conformed to until his death. On the bahar of pepper a duty of 8 deenars was taken besides a showabi or convoy tax of 1 deenar, and 2 deenars on its leaving the Custom House; on a package of indigo, 4 deenars showabi tax, and on its leaving the Custom House a $\frac{1}{4}$ deenar; on a bahar of assafœtida 8 deenars, and on a bahar of cherry bark $3\frac{1}{2}$ deenars; on a bahar of tabasheer they levied $20\frac{2}{3}$ deenars, and 1 deenar showabi; on Ood el-dafoo (aloes wood) half the value was taken; and on a frasila of camphor $25\frac{2}{3}$ deenars; on a bahar of cardamoms 7 deenars; on a frasila of cloves 10 deenars and showabi 1 deenar, and from a frasila of 10 maunds they take 20 lbs.; on a frasila of saffron $3\frac{1}{3}$ deenars; on a bahar of flax $7\frac{1}{2}$ deenars, and when a ship is sold the vendor pays a fee of 10 per cent.; on iron they take half the value, a tax introduced in the days of the Dowla Seif El Islam Taghtageen bin Eiyoob, who first took it from Abi El Hossein El Baghdadi, or, as some say, from a certain Kirawani in the year 598; on house owners a fourth part and some say a third and two deenars for notification; on a bahar of madder 12 deenars, introduced in the days of the Dowla Malik El Maiz Ismail bin Taghtageen, before whose time the duty was 2 deenars, or as some say 3; and on a bahar of tamarinds 3 joz; and on 10 Mokalib or chemises $2\frac{1}{2}$ deenars; on 10 goats $\frac{3}{4}$ of a jaiz; on each sheep a $\frac{1}{4}$; and on each horse when it enters the town 50 deenars, introduced in the reign of Malik Nasir Eiyoob bin Taghtageen bin Eiyoob; on each horse when exported by sea they take 70 deenars; and on each slave 2 deenars, and when one is taken out through the gate $\frac{1}{2}$ a deenar; on slave children from Sindapoor 8 deenars and 1 deenar showabi; and they take on these children when passed out $\frac{1}{2}$ a deenar each, which goes to the liquor contractor; on a piece of silk of Zebeed manufacture $\frac{1}{2}$ a deenar and 1 jaiz; on white cloth $\frac{1}{8}$; on dark coloured cloths 3 carats; on plaid waistcloths a $\frac{1}{4}$ and 1 jaiz, and per score of coverlets (or cloaks) 4 deenars; per score of handwoven fabrics $2\frac{1}{2}$ deenars, and the same on scarfs; per score of unbleached Indian cloths $2\frac{1}{2}$ deenars; on large striped linens 2 joz and 2 carats, and on small ditto 2 jaiz and 2 fuloos; on every bag of millet $\frac{1}{8}$th, and God knows and orders.

Account of the introduction of the showabi tax.—The Kings of the Beni Zurreea were unacquainted with vessels of war, and remained so until the arrival in Yemen of Shums-ul-dowla Tooran Shah bin Eiyoob, who brought with him some war vessels. After him Othman bin Ali El Zanzibili El Tukreeti became ruler of Aden, and the war vessels remained with him until he fled and Seif El Islam Taghtageen bin Eiyoob entered Yemen, and one of the most sagacious of the inhabitants counselled him saying—How do you consider it lawful to take customs from merchants? He replied—I do as the Kings of the Beni Eiyoob did in following an old custom. The man said they used to take it from the people by force, but do thou take it in such a way that you may obtain the thanks of the people. Seif El Islam replied—And how can I do that? His adviser said—Send these war-vessels to sea that they may protect the merchants from pirates, and so have honourable employment instead of lying uselessly rolling in the sun. He said—By God, you have come with good advice, and he despatched the vessels to India, where they were stationed off Ras Manadih to protect the merchantmen from the attacks of corsairs, and they remained thus until the year 613 A.H. After that there came to him some of the chief men, and said—God perpetuate the reign of our lord the Sultan, in that His Highness' treasury expends every year on the war vessels 50,000 or 60,000 deenars without any return; but if His Highness were to take this amount from the merchants, it would be no loss to them. He said—How is that? They replied, —On every 1000 deenars of customs let there be taken also 100 deenars for the war-vessels which will be for His Highness, and it will not burthen the merchants much. And this plan was adopted in the days of the Dowla El Mesood Eusof bin Mohammed ibn Ali Bekr bin Eiyoob, and it remained so until the year 625 A.H. . . .

Articles that are not taxed.—Articles imported from Egypt, such as wheat, flour, sugar, rice, soap, el rakee, hyssop, perfumery, olive oil, oil of el jar, pickled olives, and everything connected with its transport, nuts for sweetmeats, if in small quantities, and honey in small quantities, and whatever is brought from India for re-exportation by sea, and pickled emblic, myrobalans, cushions, pillows, bracelets, leather tablecloths, rice, kichree, which is rice and pulse mixed, simsim, soap, red ochre, poisons, karanful wood, garabi cloth, which is manufactured in Malabar, the productions of Shehr, maklaj, which are split dates with the stones extracted, and salt fish: these, however, are chargeable with duty if they have the

heads on, but not otherwise, and Indian sandals, on which, however, duty is charged if furnished with straps, but not otherwise, sheep and goats also are not taxed, and beautiful slave girls brought from Dabul and large-eyed slave boys brought from India are not charged.

Innovations at Aden.—When it was the month of Jemadi el Awal in the year 624, or more correctly 625, a Dar El Wakalat was established in Aden, and on all merchandise on which no customs were taken they imposed a tax. At the present time they levy five taxes altogether, viz., the old tax which is the customs, the showabi tax, the Dar El Wakalat tax of one carat in the deenar, the Dar El Zakat, and brokerage. The Nakhoda Othman bin Oomar El Amdi arrived once from Egypt and was found to have with him two maunds of aloes wood which they took from him, and when the time came to settle accounts the maund of aloes was valued at 6 deenars, so 1½ deenars were charged for the customs and ½ a deenar for the showabi tax. It was then valued in the Wakalat at 25 deenars, and it was charged 8 deenars and 2 daniks for Wakalat, 1¼ deenars for Zakat, and ½ a deenar for brokerage, which altogether came to 15 deenars, so after deducting the price of the aloes 6 deenars, there remained a balance against him of 9 deenars. The Nakhoda Othman bin Omar El Amdi protested, and said, By God Almighty I gain nothing by it, not a single fuls; is it not enough that you take from me the two maunds of wood for nothing, but you must demand of me nine deenars besides! And the Ameer Nasir-ul-deen Nasir bin Faroot and his followers came upon them at that time, and he said—This man is constantly coming to Aden, and should we take from him double? and he mediated between them until he squared the account. . . . It is said that a ship once arrived on which the customs duties came to 80,000 deenars. There used to anchor every year under Jebel Seera seventy or eighty ships or more perhaps, but not less. And they despatched from Aden every year four treasure parties to the fort of Taiz, viz., the receipts on the ship arrivals from India, the receipts from tribes entering Aden, the export duty on horses to India, and the receipts from ships journeying to India. Each of these treasure remittances amounted to 150,000 deenars, or more, but not less, but this has ceased in our time, 625 A.H. The circulation of Aden in the time of the Beni Zurreea was gold of Sanaa on the Sultani standard, but less than it, and the currency of the country was gold Maliki, whereof 4½ deenars equalled one Egyptian deenar. The deenar

was divided into quarters, each quarter being equal to 3 joz, each jaiz to 8 fuloos, and each fuls to 2 beidhas, and it is said the first who struck the Maliki deenar was Ahmed bin Ali El Sulehi at Sanaa.

They sell roosi (a kind of cloth) by the Kasba, the length of which is four cubits of iron, and they sell teak planks by the iron cubit, and everything was sold by auction to the highest bidder, and similarly slaves and slave girls.

APPENDIX A.

List of Authorities consulted, and Works of interest containing information regarding Aden and its inhabitants.

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APPENDIX B.

ACT No. II. OF 1864.—PASSED BY THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA IN COUNCIL. (*Received the Assent of the Governor-General on the 12th February* 1864.)

AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF CIVIL AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE AT ADEN.

Preamble.—Whereas the administration of Civil and Criminal Justice at Aden is now intrusted to the Resident, and in subordination to him to the Assistant Resident; and whereas Her Majesty has, by Her Letters Patent, dated the 22d June 1860, appointed the Resident at Aden to be Judge of Her Majesty's Vice-Admiralty Court at Aden for the purposes of and according to the provisions of the Statute 12 and 13 Vict. c. 84; and whereas the Criminal law to be administered at Aden is provided for by the Indian Penal Code, but the law to be administered at Aden in Civil matters, and the precise nature of the Criminal and Civil jurisdiction of the Resident, and the proper course of procedure in his Court, have never been defined, and it is expedient that they should be provided for; and whereas at present judgments and proceedings of the Resident at Aden are not subject to the superintendence or revision of any Court of Justice, except so far as they are subject to appeal to Her Majesty in Council, and it is expedient to provide for the superintendence or revision of certain of such judgments and proceedings by the High Court at Bombay: It is enacted as follows:—

1. *Interpretation.*—The following words and expressions in this Act shall have the meanings hereby assigned to them, unless there be something in the subject or context repugnant thereto, that is to say:—

'*Resident.*'—The word 'Resident' denotes the Chief Civil Officer at Aden appointed by the Government by whatever designation such officer may be called, and includes any Acting Resident or officer acting temporarily as such Chief Civil Officer.

'*Assistant Resident.*'—The words 'Assistant Resident' denote any officer appointed by the Government to assist the Resident at Aden by whatever designation such officer may be called, and includes an Acting Assistant.

'*Court of the Resident.*'—The words 'Court of the Resident' include the Court of any Assistant Resident.

Number.—Words importing the singular number include the

plural number, and words importing the plural number include the singular number.

Gender.—Words importing the masculine gender include females.

CRIMINAL JURISDICTION.

17. *Administration of Criminal Justice vested in Court of the Resident, subject to proviso.*—The administration of Criminal Justice at Aden is hereby declared to be vested in the Court of the Resident, save as is herein otherwise provided.

18. *Governor of Bombay may give Assistant Residents certain powers.*—The Governor of Bombay in Council may invest any Assistant Resident with the powers of a Magistrate, or of a Subordinate Magistrate of the first or second class as described in the Code of Criminal Procedure, and such Assistant Resident shall exercise such powers under the said Code, but subject to the provisions of this Act.

19. *Appeal from Assistant Resident to Resident, in what cases.*—In every case tried by an Assistant Resident in which the punishment awarded shall be imprisonment for a period exceeding six months, with or without fine, or shall be only a fine exceeding five hundred rupees, an appeal shall lie from the sentence of the Assistant Resident to the Resident. No appeal shall lie from the sentence of an Assistant Resident in any case in which the punishment awarded shall be imprisonment for a period not exceeding six months, with or without fine, or shall be only a fine not exceeding five hundred rupees; but the Resident may in all cases, within the period allowed for appeal in appealable cases, call for any proceedings whatever of the Assistant Resident at any stage thereof, and may pass such order thereon as he may think fit.

20. *Resident to exercise powers of Court of Session, and also of a Magistrate.*—The Resident shall, except as in this Act is otherwise provided, exercise all the powers of a Court of Session as defined in the Code of Criminal Procedure, and he may also, when it shall seem to him proper so to do, exercise the powers of a Magistrate as defined in the said Code, except in cases triable before himself as a Court of Session.

21. *As a Court of Session to hold Gaol Deliveries.*—The Resident in the exercise of his powers as a Court of Session shall hold gaol deliveries at convenient periods, of which due notice shall be given, for the trial of all persons charged with offences punishable under the Indian Penal Code, or under any other law in force for the time being, who may be committed to take their trial before him as

a Court of Session: Provided that the Resident shall not have power to try any European British subject charged with an offence punishable with death under the said Code. The commitment of any European British subject charged with any such offence shall be made to High Court at Bombay. In all other cases the commitments made within the limits of the jurisdiction of the Court of the Resident for offences punishable under the Indian Penal Code, shall be made to the Court of the Resident.

22. *Commitment and Trial of such Subjects, when charged with Offences other than those punishable with Death.*—If any European British subject shall be charged in Aden with any offence (other than an offence punishable with death under the Indian Penal Code) which a Justice of the Peace shall not be competent to punish, and there shall be sufficient grounds for committing him for trial, such European British subject shall be committed to the Court of the Resident, and shall be tried by the Resident.

Criminal Procedure.

23. *Proceedings in Criminal Cases how to be regulated.*—Save as in this Act otherwise provided, the proceedings in all Criminal Cases of any description brought in any Court in Aden shall be regulated by the Code of Criminal Procedure.

24. *Trial of European or American by the Resident to be by Jury.*—Criminal trials before the Resident as a Court of Session, in which a European (whether a British subject or not) or an American is the accused person, or one of the accused persons, shall be by jury, and in such case the jury, if such European or American shall desire it, shall consist of at least one-half Europeans or Americans, if such a jury can be procured.

25. *List of Jurors.*—The Resident shall from time to time prepare and make out in alphabetical order a list of persons residing at Aden who are in the judgment of the Resident qualified from their education and character to serve as jurors. The list shall contain the names, places of abode, and quality or business of every such person, and shall mention the race to which he belongs.

26. *Publication of List.*—Copies of such list shall be stuck up in the Court of the Resident, and every such copy shall have subjoined to it a notice stating that objections to the list will be heard and determined by the Resident at a time and place mentioned in the notice.

27. *Provisions of Criminal Procedure Code to apply to Jurors.—Persons in Military Service not exempted from serving as Jurors.—*

All the provisions of the Criminal Procedure Code as to jurors, and the list of jurors shall be applied, so far as the same can be applied respectively, to jurors and the list of jurors under this Act: provided that no person shall be exempt from the liability to serve as a juror on the ground only of his being in the Military Service: provided also that the jurors shall be summoned by the Resident.

28. *Execution or Commutation of Sentence of Death.*—If on any trial sentence of death shall be passed by the Resident, such sentence shall not be carried into execution until it shall have been confirmed by the High Court at Bombay. It shall be lawful for the High Court at Bombay, in any case in which it shall seem proper so to do, to commute a sentence of death to a sentence of transportation for life, or for any shorter period not less than seven years.

29. *No Appeal from Order of Resident, but he may reserve points for High Court.*—No appeal shall lie from an order or sentence passed by the Resident in any criminal case. But it shall be at the discretion of the Resident to reserve any point or points of law for the opinion of the said High Court.

30. *Review of case by High Court.*—On such point or points of law being so reserved as in the last preceding section mentioned, or on its being certified by the Advocate-General at Bombay that in his judgment there is an error in the decision of a point or points of law decided by the Resident, or that a point of law decided by the said Resident should be further considered, the said High Court shall have full power and authority to review the case, or such part of it as may be necessary, and finally determine such point of law, and thereupon to pass such judgment and sentence as to the said High Court shall seem right.

General Rules.

31. *High Court to frame Rules for Resident's Court.*—The High Court at Bombay shall have power to make and issue general rules for regulating the practice and proceedings of the Court of the Resident, and also to frame forms for every proceeding in the said Court for which the said High Court shall think it necessary that a form should be provided, for keeping all books, entries, and accounts to be kept by the officers, and for the preparation and submission of any statements to be prepared and submitted by the Court of the Resident, and from time to time to alter any such rule or form: provided that such rules and forms shall not be inconsistent with the provisions of this Act, or of any other law in force.

APPENDIX C.

LIGHTS AND LIGHTHOUSES CONNECTED WITH THE SETTLEMENT.

NAME OF PLACE.	PLACE.	Latitude N.	Longitude E.	No. of lights and relative position.	Fixed Flashing, Fix and Flashing, Int. Alt. Revolving.	Interval of Revolution or Flash.	Miles seen in clear weather.	Time Harbour Light is shown.	Colour or any peculiarity of Lighthouse.	Height in feet, centre of lantern above high-water.	Height in feet of building from base to vane.	Year lighted.	Character and order of illuminating apparatus.	REMARKS.
Marshag Light.	Marshag Cape, south-west point of Peninsula.	12°45'23"	45°4'0"	1 ..	F.	..	22	..	Dark blue stone.	244	85	1867	D 1st Order.	Chiefly of use to vessels making Aden from the eastward. Westward of Aden vessels would lose sight of the light when shut in with Ras Tye. Vessels approaching from the westward would only open the lighthouse when Jebel Hassan or Little Aden bears true north 3½ miles.
Aden Light-ship.	Light vessel, south side channel, inner harbour, moored in 18 feet.	12°47'0"	44°59'30"	1 ..	F.	..	10	Sunset to Sunrise.	Red.	39	..	1850 Act 1868	C	Fires a gun and burns a blue light on a vessel entering at night. By day depth of water is hoisted.
Perim Island.	1100 yards to south-west of Northern Bluff.	12°40'20"	43°25'0"	1 ..	R.	Every Minute.	22	..	Dark blue stone.	241	90	1861 Act 1871	C D 1st Order.	

APPENDIX D.

Marine Department.

In supersession of the Rules for the Port of Aden, published in Notification dated Bombay Castle, 3d July 1872, the following Rules, made by the Governor in Council under Section 7 of the Indian Ports Act, 1875, are published for general information and guidance, and will come into force from and after the 3d October next:—

Port Rules.

1. No vessel exceeding the burden of 100 tons shall enter or leave the Inner Harbour, or move from one place to another within the same, without the permission of the Conservator of the Port.

   Note.—No vessel of the above description can be taken into the Inner Harbour between sunset and sunrise without the special permission of the Conservator of the Port.

   Explanation.—The Inner Harbour includes all that space within a line drawn from the centre of Ras Morbat Fort through the Light vessel to the opposite coast.

2. No boat is to be towed by a vessel in charge of a Pilot without such Pilot's permission.

3. All vessels within the Port of Aden shall be bound to take up such berths as may be appointed for them by the Conservator of the Port, and shall change their berths or remove when required by the same authority.

4. All vessels moored within the Inner Harbour shall keep their jib and driver booms rigged in, and shall strike their yards and masts, if required to do so by the Conservator of the Port.

5. Every vessel moored within the Inner Harbour shall remove any anchor or spar or other substance projecting from her side when required to do so by the Conservator of the Port.

6. All vessels within the Inner Harbour shall anchor, or moor, or unmoor, when and where required by the Conservator of the Port.

7. All vessels within the Inner Harbour shall be moved or warped

from place to place as required by the Conservator of the Port, and no vessel shall cast off a warp that has been made fast to her to assist a vessel in mooring without being required to do so by the Pilot, or other person in charge of the vessel mooring.

8. All vessels within the limits of the Port shall, when at anchor between sunset and sunrise, have a good light hoisted where best seen, not more than twenty feet above the deck, and visible round the horizon at a distance of at least one mile.

Note.—The attention of the masters of vessels is directed to Sections 9, 10, 11, 14, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 35, 49, and 53, of the Indian Ports Act, 1875.—Sections 38, 40, and 41 of this Act have been specially extended to the Port of Aden by Notification dated 1st August 1876.*

9. A port-due of one anna for every registered ton shall be paid by every sea-going vessel of the burden of ten tons and upwards, which shall enter the port and either embark or disembark a passenger or cargo; provided that no fishing-boat shall be charged with any port due.

10. Any vessel entering the Outer Harbour of the port for letters, or fresh provisions, or to send telegrams, shall be exempted from the payment of a port-due, provided that no passenger or cargo be embarked or disembarked, and that such vessel shall leave the port within 48 hours.

Explanation.—The Outer Harbour includes all that space between the Southern limit, and a line drawn from the centre of Ras Morbat Fort through the Light vessel to the opposite coast.

11. Vessels taking in coal for steaming, or cooking, or condensing only, will be charged half port-dues: provided that no passenger or cargo be embarked or disembarked.

Pilotage Rules.

12. All Steamers and square-rigged vessels arriving off the Port of Aden and wishing to enter the Inner Harbour shall fly the Pilot Jack at the fore, and shall remain in the Outer Harbour until boarded by a Pilot.

13. Every sea-going vessel exceeding a burden of 100 tons which shall enter the Inner Harbour shall be charged a pilotage fee.

14. Vessels intending to anchor in the Outer Harbour are not required to take a Pilot.

15. Vessels will be piloted out of the Harbour between sunrise and sunset without charge. Pilots may be supplied to out-going vessels between sunset and sunrise at the discretion of the Conservator of the Port on payment of a pilotage fee.

16. When a Pilot is required for an out-going vessel, a written application shall be made to the Conservator of the Port between 8 A.M. and 4 P.M., specifying the time at which the Pilot is to be on board.

17. If when a Pilot proceeds on board at the time specified the vessel is not ready to be unmoored, he shall be at liberty to leave her, and a further application shall then be made to the Conservator of the Port under Rule 16.

18. Before any vessel drawing more than 17½ feet is piloted into the Inner Harbour, her Master may be called upon to give a certificate to the Conservator of the Port that should the vessel ground at low water, he will take all responsibility of such grounding upon himself.

19. Every vessel when entering or leaving the Port between sunrise and sunset shall fly her National flag, and when entering the Port shall show her number.

Re-Mooring Fees.

20. Any vessel that is moved from one place to another, may be charged a fee of two pies for every net registered ton.

Note.—When a vessel is entering the Inner Harbour between sunrise and sunset the available depth of water will be shown by flags at the mast-head of the Light vessel.

Flood-tide will be indicated by C, and Ebb-tide by F, hoisted on the Ensign Staff of the vessel.

J. MACDONALD, *Colonel,*
Secretary to Government.

Bombay Castle, 1st August 1876.

In exercise of the powers conferred by Section 61 of the Indian Ports Act, 1875, the Governor in Council is pleased, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, to order as follows:—

(*a.*) The pilotage fee for taking a vessel into the Inner Harbour of Aden, as defined in Rule 1 of Rules for the Port of Aden, shall be calculated at the rate of four pies for each ton on the tonnage as ascertained for the levy of port-dues.

The fee for taking a vessel to her anchorage in the Outer Harbour of Aden, as defined in Rule 11 of Rules for the Port of Aden, shall be calculated at half the above rate.

(*b.*) Except as provided in clause (*c*), no pilotage fee shall be charged for taking a vessel out of the said Inner or Outer Harbour.

(*c.*) When a Pilot is applied for a second time, under Rule 17 of the Rules for the Port of Aden made by His Excellency the Governor of Bombay in Council under the Indian Ports Act, 1875, and published under date the 3d day of August 1876, to take a vessel out of the said Inner or Outer Harbour, a fee of Rs. (5) five shall be charged.

J. MACDONALD, *Colonel,*
Secretary to Government.

Bombay Castle, 1st August 1876.

In exercise of the powers conferred by Section 5 of the Indian Ports Act, 1875, the Governor in Council is pleased, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, to extend specially to the Inner Harbour of Aden, as defined in Rule 1 of Rules for the Port of Aden, the provisions of Section 38 of the Indian Ports Act of 1875, and to the Port of Aden generally the provisions of Sections 40 and 41 of the said Act.

J. MACDONALD, *Colonel,*
Secretary to Government.

Bombay Castle, 1st August 1876.

In supersession of the Notification in the Marine Department, dated Bombay Castle, the 3d July 1872, the Governor in Council, with the sanction of the Governor General in Council, is pleased, under Section 6 of the Indian Ports Act, 1875, to define the Port of Aden as follows :—

All that space up to spring tide high-water-mark, inside a line drawn from the South point of Jeziret Salil to the South point of Jeziret Dhenáfah (Round Island).

J. MACDONALD, *Colonel,*
Secretary to Government.

Bombay Castle, 1st August 1876.

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